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ABSTRACT

The objective of this one-year program is to help students develop competencies to exert influence in public affairs. Seven competencies, such as communication and social skills, are considered fundamental to an education in citizenship and civic responsibility. The program could be initiated at either the 11th or 12th grade, and includes the disciplines of English and social studies. Team-teaching is suggested. The six components of the program are: (1) a political-legal process course; (2) a communications course; (3) community service internship; (4) a citizen action project; (5) an action in literature course; (6) and a public message course. Field work, a vital part of the program, includes working for political candidates and for community organizations. Detailed explanations of the six components, evaluation methods, and techniques for winning community support are outlined in separate chapters. Addresses of publishers and distributors of relevant materials are listed in the appendix. (KC)

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SKILLS IN CITIZEN ACTION:

AN ENGLISH – SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

by
Fred M. Newmann
Thomas A. Bertocci
Ruthanne M. Landsness

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Preface

The master, that iconoclastic community organizer, Saul Alinsky, once described the disillusionment of youthful citizens who came to him in despair after dedicated work on Eugene McCarthy's presidential campaign in 1968. He recalled their question, "You told us to work for power within the system. We tried, but the bosses wouldn't give us a chance, and the police bloodied our heads. Now what should we do?" "You have three choices:" Alinsky replied, "build yourself a wailing wall and start crying, build some bombs and blow us all to hell, or roll up your sleeves and go back to work on the next election."

Alinsky's wisdom is relevant not only to the full-time community organizer, but also to the average citizen who can participate only in a limited, more sporadic way, but who, nevertheless, longs to have some impact in community affairs—from getting the garbage collected to reducing the crime rate. In his writings, Alinsky argued that social action, though tough-minded and steadfast in purpose, can and must also be fun, that to lose imagination and sense of humor is eventually self-defeating. The curriculum we propose is an attempt to help young people build enough competence to participate in public affairs so that when the going gets tough, they can find good reason to avoid the extreme reactions of self-destructive violence or dropping out. We assume that if citizen participation is taken seriously in schools and taught in a deliberate fashion, it can enrich learning—and life.

Our main task is to offer a comprehensive curriculum, organized into a one-year program, which can fit into conventional secondary school structures, and which focuses on competence in citizen action. The curriculum borrows from, indeed depends upon, contributions from disparate movements: action learning, service internships, values clarification, moral development, law-related education, media education, communication skills, humanistic education, social problems analysis, psychological education. Schools often adopt bits and pieces from some of these, usually introducing them as separate enrichment courses. Unfortunately, however, they are rarely integrated with or supported by other parts of the curriculum. We propose a way to bring into focus and to combine aspects of these diverse approaches into a structured English-social studies program. The focusing, synthesizing and structuring of these different themes, all in relation to citizen action skills, is the special contribution we try to make.

We do *not* undertake some important tasks, because of limited resources or because they have been addressed in other writings. We do not, for example, offer a critique of existing curriculum or proposals for reform of secondary education in general. These are available elsewhere.[1] We give relatively slight attention to arguing why public secondary schools ought to place high priority on teaching citizen action skills. Such skills have not been accepted in academia or the schools at large as a central objective. However, the case has been made elsewhere from ethical, psychological and political perspectives, and has not yet been challenged in the literature.[2] Finally, we take as established the point that young people, when given the opportunity to participate responsibly, make substantial contributions to community life in human services, journalism, aesthetics, and public policy. This has been persuasively documented.[3]

In taking off from previous work, we have a particular group of readers in mind: high school teachers and administrators committed to more systematic curriculum in community involvement and seeking help on how to organize it. We try to assist, not by offering a packaged curriculum adaptable immediately to any school, but by presenting (a) a conception of civic competence that can give direction to a program; (b) a way of organizing instruction aimed toward that competence and still meeting requirements in English and social studies in conventional secondary schools; (c) an analysis of issues in teaching specific courses and running this novel program; and (d) an annotated bibliography of resources for direct use with students and/or for the educator's preparation.[4] All of this is intended to help local educators build their *own* programs, and we invite readers to share with us their work along the way.

Experimental programs like the one we propose do not (to our knowledge) exist, and the meager quantitative research that has been done on related programs is not very instructive. Therefore, we do not document our claims through extensive citation of supporting literature. Our conclusions are based on an awareness of a large body of literature, on our individual experiences in working with youth and staff in related programs, and on consultations with experienced educators. To indicate something of the strengths, breadth and limitations of our own expertise, we describe below some of the previous work of each author.

Fred M. Newmann is Professor of Curriculum and Instruction, University of Wisconsin-Madison. His six years teaching experience in public high schools—mostly middle class schools in Massachusetts, California and Wisconsin—included three years with the Harvard Public Issues Project teaching students to analyze public controversy, and two years with Madison's Community Issues program sending

students into the community to take action. He coordinated the planning for an alternative school (City School) in Madison that emphasizes "community" within and beyond the school, and spent four years as Director of a Ph.D. Program (Trainers of Teacher Trainers) stressing clinical work and institutional change in education. With Donald W. Oliver he developed the Public Issues Series for secondary students (30 booklets, Xerox Education Publications, Columbus, Ohio, 1967-1975). His other writings include *Clarifying Public Controversy: An Approach to Teaching Social Studies* (Boston: Little Brown, 1970); *Education for Citizen Action: Challenge for Secondary Curriculum* (Berkeley: McCutchan, 1975), and several articles.

Thomas A. Bertocci is a doctoral student in Curriculum and Instruction, University of Wisconsin-Madison. A native of Maine and a graduate of Wesleyan University, Tom taught social studies at the Hotchkiss School, Lakeville, Connecticut, before becoming a doctoral candidate in 1970. His work on this publication represents his third major diversion (or action interlude, if you will) from doctoral studies. From 1971 to 1973 he was a member of the planning group for City School, and then a full time staff member for its first year of operation. From 1973 to 1975, he was co-founder and director of Maine Reach, sponsored by the Chewonki Foundation, Wiscasset, Maine. Maine Reach is a one year residential program for high school juniors, seniors, and post-graduates who explore their natural and socio-political environment in the state of Maine and experience the rewards and demands of developing their own community. Tom's intention now is to complete his dissertation, an investigation of the concept of cooperation as it can be related to secondary school life.

Ruthanne Landsness is a doctoral student and teaching assistant in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction, University of Wisconsin-Madison. Ruthanne brings to the project a broad academic background in Spanish, Latin-American Area Studies, and Curriculum and Instruction. Her extensive travel and work abroad included a year as translator and writer with Ivan Illich at his education center in Cuernavaca, Mexico. Ruthanne also has eight years of teaching experience at the university (Marquette University, Milwaukee, Wisconsin) and high school levels (Madison Public Schools). She was a member of the planning group, staff member, and coordinator of City School, an alternative Madison Public School. She has published several articles on social conditions in Latin America. Her academic interests include civic education, moral education, interpersonal dynamics, and curriculum theory.

In January, 1976 under a grant from the Rockefeller Family Fund, we began to examine materials from ongoing programs related to civic competence. For five months we deliberated upon various

components and alternative program structures. In June, we invited ten practitioners, experienced in directing related programs in several states, to a two-day working conference. Based on their feedback and periodic advice from other consultants, we continued in summer of 1976 to refine the ideas, collect resources and prepare a first draft of the manuscript. In Fall, 1976 several persons critiqued the draft and many of their reactions were incorporated into the final version. The three authors worked as a team, dividing responsibilities among different parts of the publication, and collaborating as equals. Since Fred Newmann was project director and had final editorial responsibility, he is designated as senior author.

The book begins with a definition and explanation of our central objective (enhancing student ability to exert influence in public affairs) and an outline of the proposed one-year program at the 11th and 12th grade. We then discuss in separate chapters each of the six main components: political-legal process course, communication course, community service internship, citizen action project, action in literature course, public message. Each of these chapters deals with major goals and activities of the component, and discusses separately the concerns of reading and writing, individuation, evaluation, and how the component is integrated with others. The remaining chapters, as indicated by their titles, deal with general issues in program development and maintenance.

We are indebted to dozens of people who gave many kinds of help: financial, conceptual, technical, spiritual. John Esty of the Rockefeller Family Fund facilitated the major grant. John Palmer of the School of Education, University of Wisconsin-Madison, provided important University resources. Each of the following offered feedback on the manuscript in various stages of preparation: Ron Allen, Pat Ames, Ann Becker, Susan Bresnick, Dan Conrad, John Culkin, Anne Distefano, Judith A. Gillespie, Dale Greenawald, Ruth Gudinas, Stephen F. Hamilton, Frances Holliday, Cathy Howard, Thomas Keljik, Joyce Klepp, Henry Kopple, James Kyle, Kit Laybourne, Alan Lockwood, Paul Magnuson, Don Moore, Joyce Moulton, Greg Mueller, Joe Nathan, John Pare, Mark Parrish, Bob Pawlowski, Jon Reitman, Bob Sakakeeny, Steve Sandell, Arden Schumaker, Martha Schwartz, Dick Simpson, Deane Wagner, Marilyn Watkins, Gary Wehlage, Lisbeth Weiss, Gary Wright.

As Executive Secretary for the project, Barbara Dubovsky managed our affairs with extraordinary competence, dedication, and good cheer, and Pat Burhans bailed us out in difficult times with her superb office skills. Thanks to the graphics design talent of Peter Manesis and the production work of John Gruber and Alice Frea, the typed manuscript became a book.

Footnotes

[1] National Commission on the Reform of Secondary Education, *The Reform of Secondary Education: A Report to the Public and the Profession*, McGraw Hill, 1972.

James S. Coleman, *et. al., Youth: Transition to Adulthood*. Report of the panel on Youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee, University of Chicago Press, 1974.

Maurice Gibbons, *The New Secondary Education*, A Phi Delta Kappa Task Force Report, Phi Delta Kappa, 1976.

[2] Fred M. Newmann, *Education for Citizen Action: Challenge for Secondary Curriculum*, McCutchan, 1975.

[3] National Commission on Resources for Youth, *New Roles for Youth in the School and Community*, Citation, 1974.

Synergist, Journal of the National Student Volunteer Program, Washington, D.C.

Gibbons, *IBID*.

[4] We recognize the high instructional potential of non-print media and simulation games, but because of limited resources we were unable to review films, slide-tapes, multi-media kits. We were also unable to survey standardized tests relevant to all aspects of the program. The addresses of publishers and distributors of the printed materials we cite are given in the Appendix.

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Chapter 1

Rationale and Program Overview

In spite of incessant rhetoric about the need to educate youth for responsible citizenship, civic education in the United States receives low priority, is approached unsystematically, and is fraught with crippling contradictions. Our troubles are due in part to an *intellectual* problem, the lack of a coherent conception of education for civic competence. In part we also face *institutional* obstacles—particular structures, programs, and requirements in public education that make it difficult to place central priority upon civic education. Here we speak to each problem.

Conceptual Difficulties

What is the difference between a competent, responsible, well-educated citizen and an incompetent, irresponsible, or poorly-educated one? What do those adjectives mean in a society such as ours? We are innundated with diverse conceptions of civic education, some of which are logically contradictory, and others, while not necessarily inconsistent, reflect different priorities. Some conceptions stress obedience to the law, respect for and allegiance to existing institutions, while others stress critical questioning of the existing social order and independent moral reasoning. Some approaches see knowledge of history and social science as the intellectual foundation of citizenship, others stress knowledge of particular social problems (e.g., racism, environmental issues, global interdependence). Still others stress specific knowledge of the functioning of the political-legal system. Some approaches seem less concerned with content or substantive knowledge, more concerned with intellectual skills such as critical thinking, problem-solving, or communication skills in reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Some stress the importance of participation skills over academic preparation, but the "participation" position itself divides on different points of emphasis; for example, student governance and decision-making in school vs. volunteer service to help others in the community vs. social-political action for institutional change.

Different philosophies manifest themselves in several curriculum movements: the academic disciplines, social problems, law-related

education, values clarification, moral development, critical thinking, community involvement. In a sense these approaches compete with each other for a place in the school curriculum as teachers and administrators are bombarded with requests to give all of these top priority. A particular approach is not usually derived from an explicit conception of civic competence, or when it is, the conception is woefully incomplete.* Thus, the approaches are not usually proposed with reference to civic competence, but on other grounds (e.g., "academic disciplines are important for college and have inherent value as well," or "community involvement is good, because it facilitates the transition to adulthood.") As proponents argue for specific curricula, the "cause" in question becomes values clarification, moral development, law-related education, etc. rather than civic competence. When educators are continually preoccupied with accepting or rejecting particular proposals, they can be seduced into defining the problem in terms that the proposals initiate, before they have worked out a coherent answer to the more basic question, what is civic competence? It would make more sense to *begin* with a conception of civic competence and to derive from that the kind of curriculum which might teach it.

Institutional Difficulties

Once a conception of civic competence is articulated, certain factors make it difficult to launch comprehensive civic education programs in schools as they now exist.

1) It is generally accepted that public education should serve *several* legitimate purposes (vocational preparation, general literacy, management of certain aspects of personal life: health, consumption, use of leisure time), and that civic education—dealing primarily with the relationship of the person to the state—should, therefore, consume only a small part of the total effort. The assumption that students should have the opportunity to study and grow in a variety of areas, rather than paying exclusive attention to any single one, results in a supermarket conception of curriculum, a fragmented school schedule that divides the student's instructional life into many subjects (and extra-curricular activities), rather than concentrating on a few. One consequence of the multiple-purpose assumption is a set of requirements for graduation from secondary school and admission to higher education. Students must earn particular credits and learn certain proficiencies in such subjects as English, math, science, social studies, foreign language, and vocational areas in order to proceed to the next step in the societal reward system. Regardless of the relevance of such subjects to civic

*Newmann (1977) discusses criteria for a comprehensive rationale for civic education.

education, students must have time to pursue them, for civic education cannot dominate the curriculum.

2) So that education is offered efficiently, systematically, in an organized fashion, it has come under the exclusive control of professionals, who, presumably, have special competence to teach. Many professionals assume that learning must occur in specially designed places (schools) that must be insulated from interruption or interference by incidental, non-instructional activity or "normal life." Thus schools are segregated, allowing little contact (for teachers or students) with adults in their daily occupational work, with persons caring for others in families or other relationships, or with persons active in trying to influence the political-legal system. This protective, almost possessive, attitude makes it difficult to send students to learn in places other than schools or from people who are not credentialed educators.

3) As publicly supported institutions, schools must be "accountable" to the tax-paying public. This creates pressure to demonstrate "school effectiveness," which in turn generates pressure to conceptualize curriculum and learning only in those terms that lead to immediately quantifiable, objective measurement of student achievement. By restricting ways in which educational goals can be conceived and phrased, the pressure for accountability poses additional constraints, especially when criteria stress goals other than civic competence.

These problems might be seen as symptoms of more fundamental obstacles to social change: the undemocratic nature of bureaucracies and their tendency to centralize and expand into structures unresponsive to purposeful action; systemic forces in the economy, especially profit motives for publishers and others economically dependent upon school expenditures from teamsters to teachers; the political conservatism of adults who control socialization. All are formidable roadblocks to meaningful curriculum change. In offering a curriculum proposal we imply the belief that the power of such obstacles has not been sufficiently demonstrated to warrant surrender. But our main task here is not to verify this, not to give a social analysis on how to bring curriculum change in schools. Rather, our purpose is to offer a curriculum that is at least minimally responsive to institutional constraints. The structure we suggest attempts to address the three institutional difficulties first mentioned.

I. A Conception of Civic Competence

A. Ability to Exert Influence in Public Affairs

We begin with a few assumptions. First, that the purpose of civic education, as opposed, for example, to aesthetic, economic, or

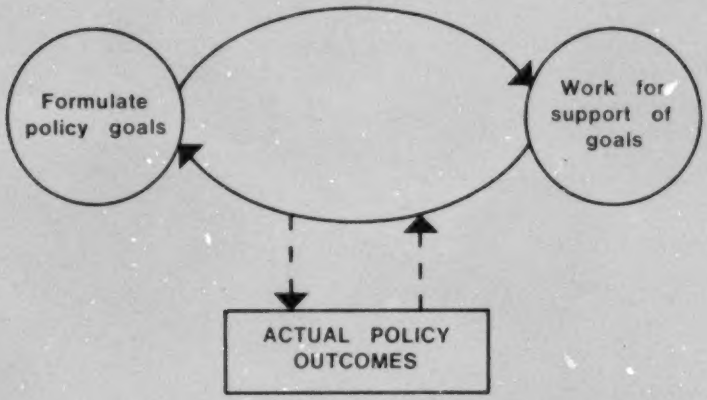
psychological education, is to teach students to function in a particular relationship with the state. Second, that the most desirable type of relationship between the citizen and the state is outlined in the structure of constitutional representative democracy. Third, that the major way in which this political arrangement differs from others is that the state "belongs" to the citizens, and the citizens have certain unalienable rights to influence what the state shall do. The primary educational mission, therefore, is to teach citizens to exert influence in public affairs, for without the competence to influence the state, the unalienable right to do so (that is, the key feature of representative democracy) cannot be exercised.

According to these assumptions the most fundamental civic competence is the ability to exert influence in public affairs. The phrase needs clarification. Public affairs are those issues of concern to groups of people to which, it is generally agreed, institutions of government should respond—through legislation, administrative action, judicial opinion, selection of officeholders, and other activities. There may be a tendency to recognize as public affairs only those issues with widespread impact, reported in the mass media (wars, elections, inflation, pollution). Our definition, however, also calls attention to countless issues at the local level and less publicized: cyclists trying to establish or regulate bike trails; volunteers trying to influence visitation policies in a mental hospital; students trying to increase the budget for women's sports in their school; black students trying to gain official school recognition of their "union." These are all "public affairs," and the citizens' ability to exert influence on such matters is as important to the functioning of democracy as a sense of involvement in issues with more global consequences.

The attempt to exert influence can be viewed as a process, diagrammed below, in which the individual develops goals or desired outcomes (e.g., closing a juvenile detention center, electing a candidate). One then works for support of the goals through organizing, bargaining—various methods of persuasion. In building support it is often necessary to modify goals (e.g., hiring a new director instead of closing the center, or publicizing crucial issues instead of actually winning the election). Revised goals serve as a new basis for action that might eventually call for even further revision as an action effort evolves. According to this dynamic, ability to exert influence should not be equated with the ability always to "win," but rather the ability to produce outcomes in public affairs in directions consistent with one's goals.

This view of civic competence may imply that each student should learn how to impose all his or her views on the world, but that would be both unethical and logically impossible. It would be ethically irresponsible to endorse unconditionally any view on public affairs that a student might profess. If a student wishes to provoke violence to

EXERTING INFLUENCE IN PUBLIC AFFAIRS



protest racism, the teacher is not obligated to help, even though the student may believe this will increase his or her ability to win support. In some cases the teacher may, instead, be obligated to make it impossible for the student to succeed. Rather than assuming that students have a blank check to exercise their will as they see fit, students and staff have a moral responsibility to study and discuss the ethics of proposed policies and actions. While it is certainly possible to exert influence without offering moral justification, our definition assumes that attempts to exert influence in a constitutional representative democracy must be ethically justified. In this sense the ability to exert influence requires ability in moral reasoning (discussed below and in Chapter 2).

No social system could function on the premise that each person has a right to implement all preferences, for this would require the logical impossibility that persons with contradictory views could each have their way. Genuine controversy over public affairs inevitably spawns "winners," "losers," and people who see themselves as somewhere in between; it is impossible to have only winners. Thus, a conception of ability to exercise influence should recognize (a) the impossibility of all citizens winning all of the time, but the desirability of all having the competence to win some of the time; (b) the fact that, in the process of "losing," even "losers" can exert influence on policy (for example, by demonstrating a power base that will have to be contended with in the future); and (c) that the decision to modify one's ideals in order to exert influence in a particular situation is not necessarily an indication of one's lack of ability to exert influence. Having one's way is surely implied in the concept of influence, but it cannot be taken to the extreme. The goal is to assist students in having some impact in public

affairs, consistent with intentions which they develop through a process of rational moral deliberation.

As another point of clarification, note that the objective is not to make all students into adults obsessed with public affairs who participate intensively and continuously on every conceivable issue. Rather than prescribing for all students a standard style or expected frequency of actual involvement, the objective is concerned mainly with increasing the ability to exert influence. Each individual must retain choice as to where, when, and how he or she wishes to use competence, and some may choose to use it only sparingly. Without appropriate skills, however, the individual does not have the option to exert influence. An incompetent person has only two options: not to participate or to participate without effect. The school should create for all students a third option: to participate in a way that makes an impact. Even if this objective were achieved for most citizens, however, we would expect wide variation in rates and types of actual participation.

B. Specific Competencies

If people are to formulate goals, win support for them and thereby exert influence, we suggest they must have the more specific competencies to

1) communicate effectively in spoken and written language;
2) collect and logically interpret information on problems of public concern;
3) describe political-legal decision-making processes;
4) rationally justify personal decisions on controversial public issues and strategies for action with reference to principles of justice and constitutional democracy;
5) work cooperatively with others;
6) discuss concrete personal experiences of self and others in ways that contribute to resolution of personal dilemmas encountered in civic action and that relate these experiences to more general human issues;
7) use selected technical skills as they are required for exercise of influence on specific issues.

As we elaborate on each, we shall see how the competencies suggest some concrete directions for curriculum.

1. Communicate effectively in spoken and written language. Skills in reading, writing, speaking and listening are obviously required in order to learn about issues, to develop one's views, and to win support. To receive and send messages effectively one needs technical skills of literacy, sensitivity and analytic ability to identify what one "really" wants to say, what others may be "trying to say," what kinds of messages

may be most effective, given some knowledge of one's audience. This view of communication acknowledges the significance of both verbal and nonverbal cues, of personal dynamics within groups, of ways in which the medium affects the message.

2. Collect and logically interpret information on problems of public concern. To have impact, citizens must defend their views with persuasive evidence. They will need information on the history surrounding specific people and events, on social trends, on existing law. Relevant data is often difficult to find and to interpret. The skills needed might be considered analogous to investigative skills of the journalist or private detective, the disciplined skills of the social scientist, the research skills of a legislative assistant. In short this refers to digging for the facts and making warranted inferences from them.

3. Describe political-legal decision-making processes. To formulate goals and to work for their support, one must know something about the formal and informal structures through which public decisions are made, and about strategies that seem appropriate for affecting different people and agencies. This calls for knowledge of realities in the dynamics of power wherever it relates to public affairs. Only a portion of this knowledge comes from formal descriptions of the political-legal system (such as the Constitution or a chart on how a bill becomes a law). In addition students need to view the system from the perspectives of actual participants and analysts who try to "tell it like it is." The intent here is to overcome myths or political naivete, to look closely at ways in which political-legal decision-making is and is not susceptible to deliberate citizen action efforts.

4. Rationally justify personal decisions on controversial public issues (including justification of strategies for action) with reference to principles of justice and constitutional democracy. In recommending courses of action, the citizen expresses value preferences that affect the lives of others. To develop support for value claims, students need instruction both in the format or style of argument and on the substantive values on which to defend their positions. In matters of style, this calls for a sincere attempt to be "rational" in the sense of providing reasons for one's preferences, grounding the reasons in some underlying principles, striving for consistency among the principles, and modifying one's views to eliminate serious logical contradictions. These can be seen as criteria for "rational" argument.

In the realm of substantive values, citizens must show that proposed actions help to advance, or at least do not violate, unalienable rights which the community is entrusted to protect. These rights are grounded in the principle of human dignity, or equal respect for every human life. From this basic premise a number of other values or principles can be derived: the right to certain liberties, to due process of law, to participation in the consent process, and more generally the

value of organizing society according to principles of representative constitutional democracy. There are two general reasons why value judgments ought to be defended rationally and with reference to these particular principles. First, an ethical, philosophical argument can be made that this is required in order to have any reasonable moral system.* Second is the pragmatic argument that those persons skilled in such discourse will actually be more persuasive and act with more influence than those unskilled.

The commitment to rationality and the values of constitutional representative democracy, however, cannot justify moralistic preaching or blind faith in particular regimes, laws, values or the USA as a nation. Now, as in the past, legitimate controversy rages over what the "best" values may be, the extent to which representative democracy might serve them, and the extent to which representative democracy actually exists or can conceivably ever exist. Students should not be insulated from such controversy but encouraged to pursue it in a studious uncensored fashion. The essential educational task is not to indoctrinate, but to remain intellectually honest and at the same time to help students justify the belief that principles of representative constitutional democracy offer the most promise for organizing co. nunity to serve the value of human dignity.

5. Work cooperatively with others. A prevailing image of the responsible citizen is the "intelligent voter" or the person who writes a letter to a Congressional representative. Most individuals, however, can exert influence only to the extent that they are backed by united group effort, and this requires far greater attention to collective process as the foundation for citizen action. Individuals need to learn to work within groups in selecting and attacking issues. Groups must develop internal mechanisms for governance and division of labor, along with approaches for eliciting cooperative alliance with other groups. Solidarity and commitment to a group must be generated, but it must also remain receptive to criticism and fulfill genuine individual needs of group members. All of this suggests the need to teach skills in group work and community organization.

6. Discuss concrete experiences of self and others in ways that contribute to resolution of personal dilemmas encountered in civic action and that relate these experiences to more general human issues. The effective citizen must be able to see relationships between specific happenings and issues phrased in general terms. If one feels frustrated at being apparently ignored by a public official, one should be able to talk about the incident in ways that help to explain why it occured and what might be done in the future to avoid it. If students observe a leader trying to justify dishonesty on the grounds that it was necessary to gain enough power to "do good," they should be able to discuss this as the

*For elaboration on this point see Kohlberg (1971) and Rawls (1971).

more general problem of means and ends. The point here is to try to transcend the immediacy, specificity, or concreteness of personal incidents to search for meanings that have some generalizability, and can therefore, make personal action more informed in the future.

7. Use selected technical skills as required for exercise of influence on specific issues. Here we refer to the "nuts and bolts" of civic action, "tricks of the trade," or skills in such areas as political canvassing, fund-raising, record-keeping, bargaining and negotiating, preparing public testimony, gaining endorsements, use of the mass media, or parliamentary procedure. Such skills should not be taught to all students as general preparation, but learned as needed with regard to students' pursuit of specific issues. This last competence differs from the first six by calling attention to specific technical training in an ad hoc or issue-related fashion.

II. Curriculum Overview

To teach the civic competencies, we propose a voluntary year-long program in the 11th or 12th grade, where students would spend almost full time in the citizen action program (e.g., 9:30 a.m. to 2:00 p.m.). They would earn the equivalent of two academic credits in English and two in social studies, would have time to take one additional course such as math, science, or foreign language, and could participate as time permits in music, athletics or other activities. Initially we recommend a pilot program of sixty student volunteers and a teaching team with the equivalent of two full time teachers, one in English, one in social studies. Aiming toward a balance among systematic classroom instruction, field observation, and active student participation, the program includes six main components:

1. **Political-Legal Process Course;** three mornings per week for 14 weeks, first semester, including one morning per week of first-hand observation in the field. This course would teach the "realities" of influence and power in the political-legal system. In addition to information on the formal structure of the system, including constitutional rights, emphasis would be placed on informal and "behind the scene" processes, especially at local levels of decision-making. Classroom instruction would relate to field assignments in which students conduct interviews, attend meetings, observe aspects of the political-legal process in the community at large. Skills in gathering data and drawing valid conclusions would be emphasized. Empirical observation and conceptual teaching would provide background for ethical analysis and moral deliberation on problems of justice. Students would develop positions on controversial aspects of public policy and political-legal process.

2. **Communication Course**, four afternoons per week for 16 weeks, first semester. The course would focus on the use of written, spoken

and nonverbal language in four contexts: intrapersonal, interpersonal, group, and public. Listening, speaking, reading and writing would be emphasized in receiving and sending messages accurately and effectively. Students would have extensive practice in different communication styles and techniques appropriate for interpersonal helping, problem-solving in groups, developing rational justifications, building group cohesion, and addressing public audiences. To improve skills in such areas, students would learn to analyze the dynamics of communication in different settings according to communication and group theory.

3. **Community Service Internship**, two full mornings per week for 14 weeks, first semester. Students would be placed in volunteer service positions in social agencies, government bodies, public interest groups, etc. They would have responsibility for working for the host organization and would be supervised by agency and school personnel. As they become involved in public service work, they would analyze aspects of institutional process in the political-legal process course, and in the communication course they would work on language skills relevant to the internship. One afternoon per week, students would share their volunteer experiences, discuss common problems, and begin to explore issues that might develop into the citizen action project for the second semester.

4. **Citizen Action Project**, four mornings per week for 10 weeks, second semester. Students would work in small groups in attempts to influence public policy. Projects could involve working for political candidates, establishment of special youth institutions, revision of administrative regulations, lobbying for legislation, etc. The issues could concern national, state, or local agencies, including the schools; for example, student rights within a school, zoning provisions to protect the environment, consumer protection, interracial cooperation, improved social services for youth in trouble. The projects would hopefully grow out of the first semester internship and field studies in the political-legal process course. During the project students would take selected "skill clinics" on such matters as techniques of canvassing, bargaining and negotiation skills, fund-raising, how to run a meeting, press releases. They would also participate in "project counseling sessions" where peers and faculty discuss issues arising from the action work. The counseling sessions would give psychological support and deal with confusion, stress, uncertainty likely to arise in active participation.

5. **Action in Literature Course**, two afternoons per week for 10 weeks, second semester. The aim would be to examine persisting issues of citizenship, rather than to focus on specific problems of students' projects, and to pursue this through diverse literature: fiction, biography, poetry, drama, and non-fiction social analysis. Students

might read a biography of Ghandi, Thoreau on civil disobedience, a novel such as *All the King's Men*, the work of James Baldwin. They might study such questions as, "What is meaningful social change?" "Can an individual make a difference?" "How should humans govern themselves?" The course would offer a special opportunity for the teacher to introduce the work of previous thinkers whose distinguished writing illuminates universal problems of citizenship.

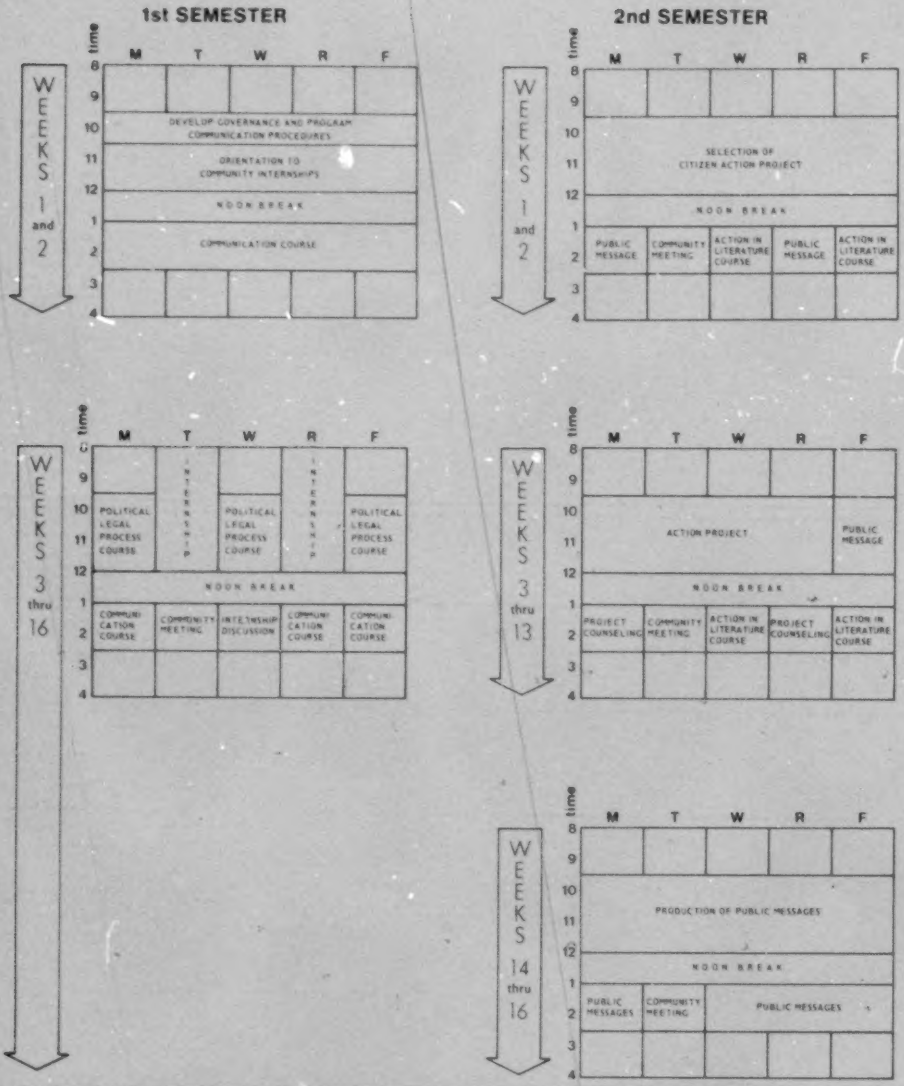
6. **Public Message**, periodically through second semester. Each citizen action group would develop a final "message" which communicated the meaning of its work to peers and the public at large. The message could take the form of a written report, a radio or TV program, a play, a film or photo essay. The point would be to tell the public what has been accomplished and to interpret the students' experience. A unit on critical analysis of the mass media would precede the creation of student messages. Producing the message would further refine communication skills, and offer a creative opportunity for students to synthesize previous coursework.

The program is not advocated as a verified model. To our knowledge no such program has ever been tried, although many schools seem to offer in some form one or more of its parts. We propose it only as a suggestion for how schools which take citizen participation seriously might create an alternative program at the 11th or 12th grade. The design is responsive, we think, to certain institutional givens; for example, the need to assign formal credit based on disciplinary categories (English and social studies), the fact that schools have other missions besides civic education, and the conventional workloads of teachers. Succeeding chapters will address many details unattended in the outline.

Note that no component is aimed exclusively at any one of the seven competencies. Communication skills, for example, would not be restricted to the communication course; they would be taught in all parts of the program. The nature of political-legal decision-making would be taught most directly in the political-legal process course, but to function successfully in the program, students would have to develop political knowledge continuously beyond that, especially in the internship, action project and public message. While some components would stress certain competencies more than others (explained further in Chapters 2-7), our intent is that all competencies would be reinforced in all components. The decision not to develop a specialized instructional module for each competency reflects our assumption that educational programs must aim toward more than expedient individual mastery. Students have a right not only to become individually competent, but also to a sense of personal dignity in the learning process. That dignity can often be violated by curricula that increasingly separate and dissect human competence. Instead, the

instructional environment must encourage a holistic, interactive view of learning. Its own activities must nourish interpersonal sharing and a just system of governance, as well as individual achievement.

SAMPLE PROGRAM SCHEDULE



III. Relationship to Other Innovative Programs

The program integrates a variety of innovative themes currently advocated in secondary education: communication skills, media analysis, moral development, values clarification, volunteerism, law-related education, psychological awareness. The program can be considered an alternative "school-within-a-school," where, for a full year, students take major responsibility for their actions and can develop a sense of community among themselves. By providing intensive opportunities for learning with adults in the community at large and integrating this experience with school-based instruction, it implements recommendations from reports of recent commissions on youth and secondary education (e.g., National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1972; National Commission on the Reform of Secondary Education, 1973; Report of the Panel on Youth, 1974). As will become apparent later, the program also incorporates much of the experience of the alternative school movement (e.g., use of out of school resources, combined role of teacher and counselor, project and advocacy-oriented coursework).

While it synthesizes many efforts, the citizen action curriculum in no sense tries to offer all things to all people, nor does it pursue objectives precisely as intended by other programs. To illustrate consistencies and differences between the citizen action (CA) program and other approaches, consider the chart below. Our entries give an incomplete picture of related movements, for we identify only those aspects that seem particularly pertinent to the citizen action programs. We do not pretend to list all differences between our program and theirs, but highlight only one or a few of the most significant.

Educational Movements Related to the Citizen Action Curriculum

Related Program	CA Consistency	CA Difference
Kohlberg Moral Development	Systematic discussion of moral issues, aiming toward ethical justification through principled reasoning.	Focus on moral issues related to public affairs. Not aimed primarily at stage development in individual students, but more at general participation skills.

Values Clarification	Emphasizes clarification of personal values related to public issues in non-threatening atmosphere.	Preparation to face challenges and strong opposition to one's values.
Communication Skills	Major emphasis on use of spoken and written language to receive and send messages.	Focus on use of language in the role of citizen. Adds to technical literacy skills the role of interpersonal dynamics and mass media.
Law-Related Education	Major emphasis on dynamics of political-legal system.	Focus on problems related to citizens exerting influence, rather than abstract understanding of topics in political science or law.
Media Education	Emphasis on analysis of and production of media.	Orientation to how the citizen is influenced by and can use the media to exert influence, rather than only aesthetic dimensions.
Psychological Awareness	Examines students' sense of self and emotional stress.	Focus on sense of efficacy and anxiety related especially to citizen participation.
Volunteerism	Students placed in responsible roles of participation in the community beyond the school.	An integrated set of courses surrounds the experience. Volunteer service is seen as a first step toward action for some institutional change.

When each of the related approaches is considered in isolation, we may quibble with aspects of its philosophy, yet each has something to offer civic education. We have tried to structure a program that builds

on strengths that these otherwise disparate movements might contribute toward enhancing student ability to exert influence in public affairs. With the broad outline in mind, we shall now look more closely at each of the program components.

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Chapter 2

Political-Legal Process Course

I. Goals

The course should help students answer two questions: How are we governed?; and how just is the process? It would concentrate on increasing student competence to describe political-legal decision-making; to collect, organize and interpret information on problems of social concern; and to justify personal choices in public affairs. In other words, it combines instruction on realities of the use of power in politics and law, on research skills required to make intelligent factual claims about those realities, and on ethical, legal and political concepts that help us make principled personal choices on issues and strategies for action.

A. Describing Political-Legal Decision-Making

It is obviously impossible to teach all that is important or interesting about government, politics, law. This course cannot resolve the difficult problem of selection of content, but we will suggest an orientation, contrasting it with others, that should help to point the way. Conventional instruction emphasizes theoretical formal structure (diagrams of the branches of government) national institutions (Congress or the Supreme Court), highly visible public decisions (Presidential elections or court decisions of desegregation), and a naive conception of how the individual citizen should participate to attain justice (vote, write a letter to Congress, or hire a lawyer). While these aspects of political-legal decision-making cannot be ignored, there should be a major shift toward the study of informal processes (e.g., forms of political pressure, plea bargaining, how to get the attention of an official or bureaucrat), toward public decisions that are significant but often "invisible" (formulating school budget priorities, or administrative regulations on police conduct), toward collective, as opposed to individual, forms of citizen participation (organizing interest groups and coalitions), and toward strategies of citizen organization to influence various points in the process. The general intent here is to study political-legal process as it would actually be observed by a lay citizen, a professional activist, or an officeholder, not necessarily through the eyes of a political scientist, a jurist, or an educator who wants to indoctrinate the "virtues of democracy" in the United States.

As students explore political-legal process, they will find people and documents referring to the fundamentals of constitutional democracy, i.e., the *U.S. Constitution* or such principles as majority rule, consent of the governed, civil liberties, due process of law, equal opportunity, local control, etc. A course in the realities of political-legal decision-making must, therefore, go beyond concrete narrative of daily events to critical study of concepts used to explain or justify the process. While an almost unlimited amount of material could be presented even on "key concepts," this course can narrow the field by focusing primarily on ideas directly related to citizen participation. In studying the Constitution for example, one might concentrate on the 1st and 14th Amendments. In examining "how a bill becomes a law," one might choose legislation on topics such as freedom of information or campaign financing. Judicial structure could be studied with reference to citizen efforts to enforce laws on civil rights or the environment.

B. Collecting and Interpreting information

To learn about political-legal process and to participate with influence, one needs research skills in collecting, organizing and interpreting information on social issues. Conventional attempts to teach "inquiry" often aim at questions that interest social scientists and historians, excluding questions that interest the activist. While activists must gather information rigorously and take care to make logically warranted inferences, activist research skills are somewhat different from those of the scientific scholar. While the activist must know how to use the library, much critical information is found elsewhere—in the records of agencies, through original interviews and surveys. In collecting information the activist, therefore, also needs skills similar to those of an investigative reporter or detective. These must complement skills of the historian—in perceiving the ways in which historical context affects human interpretation, and the social scientist–in interpreting aggregate statistical data (as in tables and charts) or in designing and evaluating empirical studies (analysis of sampling procedure and questionnaire content in attitude surveys).

As the course emphasizes the question, "how are political-legal decisions made?", the student will, therefore, need to learn to use different types of libraries and special documents, to interview in person and on the phone, to interpret elementary statistics and social research methods, to organize and present data systematically. It is common to claim, for example, that wealthy corporate executives run the city, that persons from lower income groups are discriminated against in the judicial system, or that a local firm is dragging its feet on pollution abatement. Students must learn research skills that help them test the validity of such claims.

C. Justifying Personal Choices

The study of the world "as it is" cannot be completely divorced from

judgments about what ought to be. As students observe political-legal process they may be outraged at apparent injustice, hypocrisy, incompetence. They may be pleased to find justice, sincerity and competence where it was least expected, and at times they may be curious or confused about what is just, right or fair. Citizens inevitably make evaluative judgments about specific policies (e.g., laws against marijuana) and aspects of political-legal process (e.g., discretionary power of police to arrest). Instruction on the use of power in the political-legal system should help students arrive at evaluative judgments which they can justify rationally, preferably through a principled form of reasoning.

To deliberate on fairness and justice in public affairs, students need a knowledge of and facility with certain concepts from ethical, political and legal theory. The meaning of ideals such as equality, liberty, due process, consent of the governed, pluralism, etc., can be studied through historical events, Constitutional debates, and contemporary issues. The goal is not to indoctrinate students to cherish these values, nor is it to demonstrate that existing political-legal process embodies them. To the contrary, the most costly errors of civic education have been preaching blind faith in simplistic versions of such abstractions and teaching (implicitly if not explicitly) that America has achieved them. An intellectually responsible curriculum must help students examine complexities in the ideals themselves, openly discuss their desirability, and investigate the extent to which the operating political-legal system seems to uphold them.

This aspect of the course might be seen as "decision-making," "clarifying values," or "moral development," and is consistent with other curriculum development efforts (e.g., the Harvard Public Issues Series and Kohlberg Moral Education). In this context, however, we urge that reasoning on value choices focus on the question: what is just (or unjust) about a given public decision or an aspect of the political-legal process?*

*Based on findings that only a small minority of adults demonstrate principled moral reasoning, authorities on the Kohlberg approach claim that a one-year program is insufficient for teaching this to high school students. If our goals were to teach moral reasoning at stage five or six, the criticism would be well-taken. However, our goals for rational principled reasoning are different. By "rational" we refer to such operations as recognizing the difference between factual, definitional, and value claims, offering evidence and logical "if—then" statements to support claims, recognizing inconsistency and ambiguity, qualifying, modifying or conceding points in response to persuasive challenges to one's position. By "principled," we require that students justify their value choices by articulating their interpretations of human dignity, equality, and fairness. As applied to public affairs, these values (principles) should be translated into more specific procedural values and rights; for example, freedom of expression, majority rule, or the right to confront one's accusers. While students must be taught to use and refer to such

II. Course Organization and Activities

The course should meet about six hours per week for the first semester, with an average of at least two hours per week in fieldwork outside the classroom. The course should have its own unique identity, but also address itself to two other parts of the curriculum: it should help students analyze institutional dynamics and political-legal process that affect their internships, and it should prepare them to choose a worthwhile action project second semester. Without offering a detailed syllabus, let us suggest general activities that seem crucial to the goals of understanding political-legal process, research skills on social issues, and justifying personal choices.

A. Orientation-Exploration

Students will need a chance to "check things out" in an exploratory fashion, a chance to observe different groups and talk informally with actual participants in political-legal process. Individually, in small groups, or on class field trips they need to visit people and agencies they may later study or try to influence. In the beginning, however, they should have a chance to follow their curiosity around the community, to expand their horizons, more as tourists than as scientists or investigative reporters. While the tone of this respects student autonomy, it does not rule out teacher-planned, required excursions. The orientation must establish "limits" within which it sponsors exploration of the community: it exists to help students understand political-legal decision-making and to help them choose an area in public affairs that they would like to affect. The places and people to be visited must fit within this framework, and teachers must provide an observational structure (e.g., key questions and exercises) to guide them.

B. Expository Teaching

While the course suggests departures from traditional teaching styles, there is no intent to exclude lectures, texts, and teacher-led analysis of assigned material. The teacher will want to communicate principles, theories, methods of analysis related to justification and critiques of constitutional democracy, the adversary judicial system,

values, it is not necessary that they interpret them in the precise manner advocated in Kohlberg's definition of stage five or six reasoning.

Years of curriculum work, along with research on cognitive development have demonstrated difficulties in teaching complex reasoning skills, and we have no illusions about teaching all citizens to function as sophisticated, principled reasoners by our definition or Kohlberg's. There are, however, three features of the proposed program which suggest that some advancement toward our goals can be made. The program is comprehensive, integrated, and virtually full-time, offering an intensive experience. It focuses not primarily on verbal abstractions, but on application of concepts to students' participatory experience with concrete realities in their own communities. Finally, the program serves the oldest group of secondary students, that is, those most capable of abstract, sociocentric thought.

approaches to citizen action, and specific policy questions. Because of the lack of adequate texts on some of these issues, especially when focused on local political-legal process, guest speakers from the community can assist in presenting background material. It is important to include the views not only of "establishment professionals" within the system (politicians, attorneys, judges), but also those of the "outsiders" (community organizers, low-level bureaucrats, constituents of the decision-makers). While we endorse expository teaching to present general content, we urge that the general facts, concepts, or theories be related to a specific problem of concern to the class. Rather than study the Supreme Court in order "to learn about our government," one could study it because of its effect in deciding what rights to due process students ought to have in suspension or expulsion proceedings. The strategy of communicating general information or raising general issues in response to specific situations is best illustrated through the case study approach.

C. Case Studies

Detailed accounts of how decisions are made within a group or agency (police department, school board) or how various groups and agencies affect the outcome of a particular public issue (availability of counseling services to runaways) are helpful. Journalists, historians and social scientists have written studies which teachers could use or adapt. In addition, students can undertake their own investigative efforts, researching and writing original case studies on particular institutions or issues in the local community. Student production of their own case studies will develop research skills as well as knowledge about political-legal process.

Case studies can convey a sense of history about social influence. Students often have naive, idealistic notions about how easy it ought to be to pass a law, win an election, to control public policy. It is important to gain a historical sense of struggle and the complexity of working to exert influence over time on many different fronts, to view a temporary "loss," not as final defeat, but as a step in a longer process. The point of communicating a sense of history about social change is not to substitute patience for zeal, but to introduce enough patience so that the zeal can be pursued productively rather than drowned in a sea of disillusionment.

D. Research Skill Exercises

Prior to undertaking an original case study, students ought to learn diverse ways of gathering information: contacting information agencies (various libraries and records centers) and using materials (reference books, files) there; interpretating simple statistical tables and charts; analyzing opinion and attitude questionnaires; locating knowledgeable people and interviewing them. Skill-building exercises can be devised

in these areas; for example, beginning with a few clues, students could be asked to identify owners of property at a specific address, the people who make budget decisions in a local agency, trends in juvenile arrests, or existing city ordinances on a given topic. Specific skills should eventually be used to formulate a position on a real issue on which they might eventually take action.

E. Taking a Position

Since a main purpose of the course is to teach rational justification of personal choices on public affairs, there must be ample opportunity to take a stand, to receive and respond to feedback on one's value judgments about what is just and unjust, right or wrong in public affairs. In their internships and field observations, students will encounter value controversies, and the teacher should help to structure student observations so that these become apparent. Examples: a volunteer in a mental hospital may wish to question the fairness of involuntary commitment; in trying to observe government process some students may find themselves excluded from certain meetings, thus raising questions about secrecy and openness in government. The issues selected need not come exclusively from students' field experience. Important problems dealing with justice in democratic process may not be locally salient, but students should learn to take positions on them; for example, the conflict between free speech and community security, consent of the governed and equal opportunity (busing), or the right to privacy in public institutions. In this section of the course students should become comfortable with taking a stand on controversial, value-laden issues, and the teacher can help by introducing ethical, legal and political concepts.

F. Choosing Action Projects

During the first semester, students should begin looking for second semester action projects. This involves scouting the community for issues of interest, and then limiting the topics to a few project areas that the whole class can tackle in the limited time period. To define an area will require research into the substance of the problem and into actual possibilities for action at that particular time of the year. The choice of action areas should be a collective decision by the class, requiring accommodation of diverse student interests, and some compromise within the class to reach agreement. It is possible of course to have several competing action projects within the program, and no group of students should be unreasonably denied the chance to take action. While this is discussed more extensively under the citizen action project, the political-legal process course must begin the process of issue selection, including rejection of some problems that, while interesting and significant, seem too complex for the time and resources available.

G. Fieldwork

Several activities should take students to the community beyond the classroom—to meetings of public bodies (councils, courts, committees), to interest groups trying to exert influence on those bodies (political parties, issue-oriented groups such as environmental or civil rights advocates), to constituents of public officials or interest groups, to individual interviews with officeholders, to lay people and professionals who work in and on the system, to depositories of information such as specialized libraries or agencies with public records on topics like taxes, property, crime, health, administrative and legislative regulations. Activities such as the exploratory orientation, constructing a case study, learning special research skills, or investigating issues for a potential action project will all involve fieldwork.

Students should not be sent into the community without careful preparation, and the teacher needs to anticipate preparation required for different situations. Background information on the person, group or agency to be visited will help students ask intelligent questions. "Conceptual roadmaps" can be devised and taken to the site. These focus student attention on such matters as delegation of authority, informal leadership, social class, ways of avoiding criticism, as opposed, for example, to the color of the walls, the personal appearance of the officials, or the taste of the coffee. Role-playing in class can be used to practice skills needed on site—especially interviewing, where one needs to anticipate the kind of information wanted and how to phrase appropriate questions in response to reactions of the host. Field visits should be seen not only as a way to learn about political-legal decision-making, but also as an opportunity to cultivate adult resources that could be beneficial in the later action project and public message.

In some situations the teacher may have to secure permission from the host site for student visitation; in others official approval may not be required, but it would still be advisable to orient persons at the site; in still other situations, preparing the "host" for student visits may defeat the purpose of the visit itself. As a general guideline, however, students should always attempt to clarify in class ahead of time what they want from a field activity, what they are likely to encounter and how to deal with that. Systematic preparation will facilitate learning, and it will also have the added benefit of impressing the community with the "professional" manner in which students handle their studies. In this regard, students should also be prepared to answer questions and criticism of the civic education program itself (see chapter 11).

III. Student "Turn-Offs" to Political-Legal Process

Throughout a course of this sort, and the program as a whole, the teacher must be prepared to handle students' cynicism and

disillusionment with the "system." Although we have no panacea for turning alienation into purposeful enthusiasm, we can anticipate sources of disillusionment and suggest general strategies for dealing with them. The teacher must not reject students personally for negative attitudes toward political-legal process, but must show positive regard, giving the student emotional support and encouragement to express his or her frustrations with the system. The teacher should help identify the precise source of frustration or disillusionment, for often what really bothers us is not what we initially think it is. Finally, a variety of guests (officeholders, activists, professionals and lay people) who have dealt with similar frustrations should be called upon to share with students how they cope with such problems. We can describe six general sources of student "turn-offs."

Adults as Scoundrels. Personal behavior of adults in public office can be distressing. Their style of communication can be paternalistic if not arrogant. They may refuse to give straight answers, evading important questions. Sometimes they may appear to be dishonest, overly opportunistic, criminally corrupt, or merely incompetent. In any case, negative judgments about individual behavior in public institutions cast doubts on general institutional credibility. In discussing reactions of this sort, it is helpful to make sure that individuals in question have received a "fair" assessment, to inquire about the relevance of "objectionable" personal behavior to the individual's public mission, and to discuss ways in which relevant undesirable behavior might be reduced.

"Dumb" Policies. Observation of apparently indefensible policies (e.g., inhumane conditions in a prison, tax loopholes, or lack of housing code enforcement) breeds disenchantment with the "system." In-depth discussion of the merits of various policies (practices) may lead students to revise initial impressions, especially if they confront the views of actual participants involved in initiating or supporting the policy. The point here is not to dampen a sense of outrage, but to make sure that one's judgments are sound and based on knowledge of the issues. If negative judgments are confirmed, the main question is "what alternative policies would be more justified, and how would you go about implementing them?" This line of inquiry could lead to ideas for future action projects.

Citizen as Underdog. Students may note tremendous inequities in power that allow only certain people to exert influence, and they may question the legitimacy of power differences based on money, status, professional credentials, race, or sex. If the "haves" can make a difference in public affairs, and "havenots" cannot, what's the point of democracy? It is important to study and test claims about who has the power and who seems clearly excluded. Then it is crucial to analyze how "havenots" might gain more power. Historical examples of

collective organization and ways of working to make the powerful pay attention can be studied. To reach the conclusion that one has no power leads us to ask: what is required to get more, and am I willing to try? To seek power to influence the state is to try to implement one's rights under the principle of consent of the governed.

Systemic Hopelessness. This source of disillusionment posits a circular system or historical progression which perpetuates injustice and which cannot be penetrated, modified, or shaken off course. Some of the deterministic forces might be labeled capitalism, technological mentality, bureaucratization, materialism, racism, survival of the fittest. Adolescents may not articulate this critique, but they can sense forces too pervasive or powerful for humans to control. To deal with this we might ask: How sure can we be that the proposed forces are impervious to conscious human intervention? Which of our problems can be attributed to policies or institutional structures amenable to some modification by human design, and which of those problems could be solved only through long evolutionary processes or sudden planetary upheaval? Often those who note systemic hopelessness really do not feel total despair. Instead they hold visions of alternative systems or utopias, but are not sure how to bring them about. The validity of those visions should be discussed as should strategies for implementing them.

Paralyzing Complexity. Another source of "turn-off" is the intellectual difficulty of comprehending social dynamics, knowing how to define a manageable issue, and how to use various interdependent parts of a system to move toward a goal. This is primarily a problem in human intelligence—how do we comprehend multivariate forces, often in flux, and interdependent on each other? One of the responses is education—learn more about the problems, but another, perhaps more important, is temperamental tolerance for ambiguity, some acceptance of our inability to know all, but the necessity to act nevertheless. This response will not necessarily resolve anxiety over complex, "unanswerable," questions, but we must honor this point of view, especially in school where the message is so often to the contrary –"if you don't know all, you're inferior."

Sense of Personal Inadequacy. Students may attribute to the "system" their own sense of personal helplessness. They may be afraid to assert themselves, unwilling to take the risks or pay the costs that accompany some forms of action. They may have a low sense of personal worth and feel reluctant to test their competence in a new area. To the extent that student disillusionment seems rooted more in personal anxiety than in objective reality, we must help the individual try new challenges in a nonthreatening way, and to build competence to face the "cold" system. However, to the extent that student fears are well-grounded (e.g., an employer who might invoke serious

sanctions), we must accept them and not try to explain them away as evidence of student "insecurity."

IV. Reading and Writing

As students investigate political-legal process and take positions on issues, they will read and write extensively in diverse forms. Reading will include narrative and analysis of political-legal decision-making in newspapers, magazines, and books; court decisions, hearing testimony, bills, agency reports (e.g., budgets, surveys), propaganda from interest groups. Writing will include note-taking and summaries of field observations, letters to public officials, essay positions on controversial issues, research reports on surveys or case studies. At the beginning of the course, requirements should be established as to which of these activities, in what quantity, will be required of each student. An inventory or checklist can be kept which the teacher should monitor, providing instruction and evaluation at appropriate times. At the end of the course, the student should have a cumulative record of reading and writing accomplishments, along with assessments of the quality of completed tasks.

V. Individuation

In line with its three main goals, the course should build a common set of competencies for all students. Opportunities to pursue individual interests can occur within that framework. When conducting original case studies for example, individual students can choose agencies or decisions of interest, and within a group, students can divide labor according to individual preference and competence. In assigning research skill exercises, the teacher can provide electives that respond to individual interests within a skill area (e.g., find out how any of the following groups distributed their funds last year: League of Women Voters, Urban League, Teamsters Union, Young Republicans). In taking a stand on controversial issues, students may choose issues of personal interest, although the class as a whole should study some issues in common. Reading and writing can be completely individualized, allowing the student to choose topics or examples consistent with the general types of reading and writing required. Choice of the action project is theoretically individualized, but because of the need to work in groups and probably on only a few areas, it will be constrained somewhat by the interests of one's classmates.

VI. Evaluation

Various techniques can be used to assess student competence in each of the three goal areas. Standardized national tests would generally be inappropriate, but some items from them might be used if they conform to what has been taught in the custom-built local course

(for an annotated compilation of tests, see Buros, 1975). Although the teacher will have to assemble items from different sources and create many anew, "objective" testing is possible in several areas of this course. Once the teacher has identified the particular facts, concepts, or theories about political-legal process that students should know, conventional tests can be constructed, using multiple choice, true-false, sentence completion or other conventional formats (e.g., Which of the following agencies would you contact with a complaint about auto repairs? List two important Constitutional rights that would be relevant immediately following your arrest for disorderly conduct. Name an advantage and a disadvantage of electing, instead of appointing, people to public office.) In addition to discrete items like this, essays requiring summary or synthesis can be assigned; for example, "Describe a lesson you would teach to elementary school children on the topic 'how decisions are made in our government.' " Assessment of knowledge of political process can occur in an oral discussion format as well as through paper-pencil testing.

Competence in research skills can be tested through assignments in information retrieval and interpretation that replicate skill-building assignments completed earlier in the course—digging information out of reference sources, interpreting tables, giving complete bibliographic citations. Interviewing skills can be assessed by listening to tape-recordings of student interviews, reading the students' reports of interviews, and gathering testimonial evaluations of students by those who were interviewed.

Skills in taking a position can be evaluated by examining students' oral discussions and written position papers. Discussions can be taped and scored to assess the extent to which students clarified their views, used principled reasoning, maintained consistency, or demonstrated other rational behaviors. Written position papers can be similarly evaluated, with perhaps more emphasis on the thoroughness of student argument and use of evidence. Proposals for action projects could serve as evidence of the quality of application of knowledge of political-legal process, research skills, and rational position-taking.

Reading and writing can be evaluated through inventories mentioned above and also through standardized tests of speed, comprehension, syntax, spelling, etc.

While these techniques will produce quantitative evidence on what the student has done, evidence on the quality of student work rests ultimately on the teacher's professional judgments. This book can do little to improve these judgments. Evaluation is "objective" only up to a point, and from then on we must trust the competence of the teacher to rate student performance from high to low on those scales of excellence that the teacher establishes.

VII. Integration with Other Components

The course will dovetail with the communication course mainly in the section on taking a position, where student advocates focus carefully on use of spoken and written language. The political-legal process course would stress articulation of substantive principles behind one's positions, and the communication course would work more on the style of articulating one's case. The community internships will offer sites for investigation of institutional process and hopefully will also generate topics for action projects. Research skills will be useful for the later action projects and creation of the public message.

VIII. Materials and Resources

The resources are divided into the three main parts of the course: describing political-legal decision-making, collecting and interpreting information, and justifying personal choices.

A. Describing Political-Legal Decision-Making

1. Major Bibliographies for Teachers

ABA Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship, *Bibliography on Law-Related Materials: Annotated* (second edition), American Bar Association, 1976. $1.00. The most recent and comprehensive bibliography, with numerous materials grouped according to grade level and such categories as introduction to law, the Constitution, the Bill of Rights, current issues, general handbooks, the political process. Materials for teachers are identified separately as are different series offered by publishers. Probably the single most valuable resource to plan a course in political-legal process. We add to this mainly in the areas of action strategies, collecting and interpreting information, and justifying personal choices.

Gerlach, Ronald A. and Lynne W. Lamprecht, *Teaching About the Law*, W.H. Anderson, 1975. $9.95. Sourcebook for teachers, focusing on fewer sets of materials than the ABA bibliography, but including chapters on audio-visual presentations, community resources, legal reference materials, discussion of teaching techniques (case studies, role-playing) and evaluation.

These outstanding works cover the topic thoroughly. We limit our listing below to illustrative materials somewhat out of the mainstream of secondary texts.

2. Political Structure and Process

*Blevins, Leon W., *The Young Voter's Manual: A Topical Dictionary of American Government and Politics*, Littlefield, Adams and Co., 1974. $3.95. General reference on government agencies, constitutional issues, dynamics in politics, the economy, urban issues. Topics cross-referenced and well indexed. Historical background included for most topics.

*Boyarsky, Bill and Nancy, *Backroom Politics: How Your Local Politicians Work, Why Your Government Doesn't and What You Can Do About It*, J. P. Tarcher, 1974. $8.95. A journalistic account of behind-the-scenes, special interest local politics, including

*Here and in subsequent chapters, materials appropriate for direct use with secondary students are designated by an asterisk. Non-asterisked materials are more appropriate as professional reading and special resources for teachers.

stories of citizens' groups. Case histories of political process on issues such as waste disposal, building an amusement park, smog, transportation.

Buros, Oscar K. (Ed.), *Social Studies Tests and Reviews*, Gryphon Press, 1975. $20.00. Entries for all standardized social studies tests with selected reviews. Includes directory of test publishers and test listings. Combines social studies sections of seven *Mental Measurements Yearbooks* (1938-1972) and *Tests In Print II* (1974).

*Center for Information on America, *Grass Roots Guides*, $.50/guide (26 guides). Short guides aimed at furthering citizen participation. Titles from 1960's to present include roles of foundations, political broadcasting, presidential nominating conventions, running for office at the local level.

Center for New Schools, *Use of the City as a Resource at Metro High*, The Center for New Schools, 1974. $2.75. Appropriate for the "fieldwork" part of the course, this offers research and analysis for teachers on problems of managing community-oriented studies. Specific issues such as travel, informal learning, problems of communication among students are helpfully discussed.

Cook, Clifford, George Dyer, Gary Pelo and Robert Smith. *An Analytical Model for Student Participation in Governmental Agencies*, Salem (OR) Public Schools, 1975. $3.00. Suggests a conceptual model for student inquiry into political-legal process, and presents a number of instructional activities which have been found successful in the classroom. Designed to complement the GRASP internship program (see Chapter 4 bibliography).

*Gillespie, Judith A., John J. Patrick and Stuart Lazarus, *Comparing Political Experiences*. High School Political Science Curriculum Project, 1975. Unit titles: Observing Political Systems, Using Political Resources, Participating in Political Activities, Political Issues Skills Kit. Materials stress analytic abilities for describing political systems rather than specific conclusions on how the American system functions. Many exercises stress active inquiry by students. Forthcoming publication by Prentice Hall.

*Green, Mark J., James M. Fallows and David R. Zwick, *Who Runs Congress?* Bantam, 1972, $2.25. An "inside" look at Congress, including chapter on citizen action to affect Congress. While the names of Congressmen are outdated, their information on "behind-the-scenes" dynamics is useful.

*Institute for Political Legal Education. Several titles emphasizing electoral and legislative process, encouraging active student involvement in voter registration, political campaigning and lobbying. Focus on state and local government.

*Mehlinger, Howard D. and John J. Patrick, *American Political Behavior*, Ginn, 1974. $7.55. Text on political process, emphasizing voting, legislative process, political decision-making, the role of lobbyists, pressure groups. Includes hypothetical and real cases. Companion materials include teachers' guides, simulations, tests, films.

*Oliver, Donald W. and Fred M. Newmann, *Community Change: Law, Politics and Social Attitudes; Municipal Politics: Interest Groups and the Government; Social Action: Dilemmas and Strategies*. Xerox Education Publications, 1967-72. $.50/booklet. Actual and hypothetical cases of citizens trying to influence political process at the local level.

Simpson, Dick, *Who Rules: Introduction to the Study of Politics*, Swallow Press, 1973. $3.50. Imaginative guide for a college course that could be adapted to secondary level. Emphasizes concrete realities on the problem of "Who rules?", the philosophic question, "Who should rule?" and the action question, "What can be done to maintain or change rulers?" Refers to helpful readings and documentary films.

*Simpson, Dick and George Beam, *Strategies for Change: How To Make the American Political Dream Work*, Swallow Press, 1976. $10.00. Based on the authors' personal experience in Chicago politics, the book discusses effective and ineffective action strategies in such areas as electoral, administrative and issue politics. A good example

of an action handbook which describes structure and process from the point of view of the citizen trying to exert influence.

3. Legal and Judicial Process

*American Civil Liberties Union, Handbook Series on the Rights of Americans, Avon, 1976. From $.75-$1.75/book. Separate books on rights of women, mental patients, poor people, servicemen, teachers, students, reporters, hospital patients, candidates and voters, suspects, gay people, prisoners.

*Constitutional Rights Foundation, *Bill of Rights in Action*. $4.00/year subscription. Published four times a year; deals topically with the legal system, emphasizing student involvement. Also available are role-playing simulation games dealing with the police, juries, kids in crisis, etc.

*Daly, Joseph L., Michael J. Feeney, Dean Douglas, R. Heidenreich, Gerald A. Regnier, Violet J. Sollie, Marcy L. Wallace and Roger K. Wangen, *The Student Lawyer: High School Handbook of Minnesota Law*, West, 1976. $2.95. Practical guide on topics such as running away, medical care, snowmobiles, pool halls and gambling, locker searches, alcohol, narcotics, juvenile justice system.

*Hanna, John Paul, *Teenagers and the Law*, Ginn, 1975. $2.35. Expository paperback on the legal system, business and property rights, laws on relations between people, criminal law (person, public, punishment) constitutional law, law related to school, youth employment, vehicles, family, selective service, juvenile courts, drugs.

*National Street Law Institute, *Street Law: A Course in Practical Law* (with teacher's manual), West, 1975. $5.50. Excellent resource including introduction to law, criminal law, consumer law, family law, housing law, individual rights law, environmental law. Explains principles, poses problem cases, identifies steps in the process, glossary of key terms.

*Oliver, Donald W. and Fred M. Newmann, *The Lawsuit: Legal Reasoning and Civil Procedure; Rights of the Accused: Criminal Procedure and Public Security*, Xerox Education Publications, 1968. $.50/book. Narrative case studies illustrating judicial process.

*Ratcliffe, Robert H. (Ed.), *Justice in America Series*, Houghton-Mifflin, 1970-present. About $2.07/book. Titles: Law and the City, Crimes and Justice, Law and the Consumer, Poverty and Welfare, Landlord and Tenant, Youth and the Law. Combines practical, concrete information with student inquiry on general issues.

*Summers, Robert S., A. Bruce Campbell and Gail F. Hubbard, *American Legal System*, Cornell Law Project Series, Ginn, 1974. $6.60 for set of 5 books. Series includes cases, court opinions, expository explanations on topics such as Society's Need for Law, Techniques of Law, Constitutional Projection of Basic Social Values, Limits of Law.

B. Collecting and Interpreting Information

Assuming that social studies teachers are familiar with texts that stimulate skills in "problem-solving," "inquiry," "critical thinking," here we list guides for students actively gathering data in the community. The sources are strong in survey techniques and finding reference sources, but somewhat weak on the craft of investigative reporting. We were not able to survey the field of journalism which undoubtedly has an abundance of resources. Consult also the bibliography for Chapter 5 the Citizen Action Project.

*Burges, Bill, *Facts and Figures: A Layman's Guide to Conducting Surveys*, Institute for Responsive Education, 1976. $4.00. Explains empirical social science methods, with specific instructions on sampling, questionnaire design, drawing conclusions. Examples focus on research related to public education.

**Community Research Techniques*, Institute for Political/Legal Education, 1975. $1.75. Student guide, emphasizing polls and surveys.

*Ferreira, Joseph and Bill Burges, *Collecting Evidence: A Layman's Guide to Participant Observation*, Institute for Responsive Education, 1976. $2.00. Source on how to make observations and how to find key informers outside of the formal leaders, applied mainly to school situations. Helpful for investigative reporting.

Ghory, Ward, *The Study of Neighborhoods: High School Students Explore Their Communities*, Center for New Schools, 1975. $2.00. Describes actual projects that students have undertaken.

*Lowe, William, *City Life*, Hayden, 1974. $2.95. Chapter 5 has bibliographies on specific issues, listings of relevant government publications, periodicals, and annotated list of functions of government agencies at Federal, state and local level.

*Jones, Ron, *Finding Community: A Guide to Community Research and Action*, James E. Freel & Assoc., 1971. $4.95. Readings and research-action exercises on topics such as poverty, policy, the draft, schools.

*Marian, Bert, David Rosen and David Osborne, *How To Research the Power Structure of Your Secondary School System*, Study Commission on Undergraduate Education and the Education of Teachers, 1973. $2.00. Outlines a research strategy with specific questions to ask and sources of information.

Michael, James R. with Ruth C. Fort (Eds.), *Working On The System: A Comprehensive Manual for Citizen Access to Federal Agencies*, Basic Books, 1974. $15.00. Detailed reference on gaining information from twelve Federal agencies, including Federal Trade, Interstate Commerce, Federal Communications, Atomic Energy, Food and Drug, Internal Revenue Service, Environmental Protection.

*Southwest Research and Information Center, *The Workbook* (Monthly publication) Students $7.00, Individuals $10.00, Organizations $20.00/year. Gives sources of information on diverse issues, intended to help citizens become more active. Includes publications and organizations. Topics such as energy, penology, women, youth-aging, consumer affairs, corporations.

*Todd, Alden, *Finding Facts Fast: How To Find Out What You Want To Know Immediately*, Morrow, 1972. $2.45. Handbook on techniques of research, basic reference sources, types of libraries, information services, special services from periodicals and multimedia sources.

C. Justifying Personal Choices

*Boland, John E., Charles J. O'Fahey and Darryll L. Olson, *Deciding How To Act in a Political Society: The Ethics of Political Behavior*, McDougal, Littell, 1975. $4.32. Expository material and case studies on role of political parties, the candidate, the campaign, problems of officeholders, uses of public pressure. Questions require students to make value choices on how they would participate.

*Carey, Maureen, Paul Chapman, Robert Cunnane, Antony Mullaney and Anne Walsh, *Deciding On the Human Use of Power: The Exercise and Control of Power in an Age of Crisis*, McDougal Littell, 1975. $4.32. Discussion of individual, group, economic, political and international power. Case studies requiring personal value choices. Activities leading students to inquire about the way power is and ought to be used in a variety of situations.

Galbraith, Ronald E. and Thomas M. Jones, *Moral Reasoning: A Teaching Handbook For Adapting Kohlberg to the Classroom*, Greenhaven, 1976. $4.95. Explanation of stages of moral reasoning, the teacher's role in leading discussions of moral dilemmas, includes examples of dilemmas. Not focused on political and public issues, but can be adapted. Concise, selective bibliography of other materials and films.

*Gillespie, Judith and John J. Patrick, *Comparing Political Experiences*, High School Political Science Curriculum Project, 1975. Units on *Busing in Boston, Clean Air Now,*

Union Underground, Jobs and Engines. Forthcoming publication by Prentice Hall.

•Law in a Free Society Project, 1975. $12.50/unit. *On Authority, On Diversity, On Freedom, On Justice, On Participation, On Privacy, On Property, On Responsibility.* Each unit has a curriculum outline, lesson plans, teachers guide, and student casebook. Raises important conceptual issues.

•Oliver, Donald W. and Fred M. Newmann, *Taking A Stand: A Guide To Clear Discussion Of Public Issues,* Xerox Education Publications, 1967. $.50/book. Student guide for analyzing disagreement on public issues and conducting productive discussions to build sound personal positions.

Oliver, Donald W. and James P. Shaver, *Teaching Public Issues In The High School,* Utah State University Press, 1974. $4.50. Emphasizing underlying value commitments in American constitutional democracy, the book explains how to analyze public controversy as a combination of disagreements over facts, definitions and values. It describes experimental research in teaching secondary students the rational analysis of public controversy.

•Quigley, Charles N. and Richard P. Longaker, *Conflict, Politics and Freedom,* Ginn, 1976. $3.29. Case studies illustrating politics in a constitutional democracy, the nature of conflict, and the management of conflict. Includes court cases, events reported in the media, excerpts from special documents. Inquiry questions for each episode.

•Shaver, James P. and A. Guy Larkins, *Decision-Making in a Democracy,* Houghton Mifflin, 1973. $6.40. Text on rational analysis of controversial issues, including problems of communication, approaches to resolving disagreement over facts, values, making qualified decisions, understanding various uses of language.

Shaver, James P. and William Strong, *Facing Value Decisions: Rationale Building for Teachers,* Wadsworth, 1976. $4.95. Excellent teacher's introduction to the handling of value issues.

•Spurrier, William A. and Robert Taylor, *Politics and Morality: Case Studies in American Political Behavior,* Xerox Education Publications, 1975. $1.50. Ethical dilemmas among officeholders on issues of loyalty, nepotism, gifts, conflict of interest, lying, corruption, private behavior — based on actual incidents.

Several series offer factual background, case studies, alternative viewpoints, and provocative questions to help students justify policy and action choices on specific issues.

•*The Analysis of Public Issues Program: Problem Series,* Houghton Mifflin, $2.16/book. The Police and Black America; Progress and the Environment: Water and Air Pollution; Race Riots in the Sixties; Students' Rights: Issues in Constitutional Freedoms; Women: The Majority-Minority.

•*Crucial Issues in American Government,* Allyn & Bacon. $14.40/set. Power in American Society: Burden or Blessing; Who Controls the Controllers: A Case Study of Political Behavior; Freedom or Order: Must We Choose?; The Supreme Court: Does It Protect or Limit Our Liberties?; Lobbies and Lobbyists: In Whose Best Interest?; Justice in America: Fact or Fiction?; Morality and Government: Dream or Necessity?; Social Policy: What Is It and How Is It Formed?; Leaders and the Led: Who Follows Whom?; Participation, Protest and Apathy: A Question of Involvement.

•*Hayden American Values Series: Challenges and Choices,* Hayden. $2.95/book. City Life; Dissent and Protest; The Environment: A Human Crisis; Introduction to Value Inquiry: A Student Process Book; The Poor; The Rights of Women; Urban Growth; War and War Prevention.

•*Inquiry Into Crucial American Problems Series,* Prentice-Hall. $1.80/book. Alienation: Individual or Social Problems?; American Woman: Free or Frustrated?; Cities in Crisis: Decay or Renewal?; Country, Conscience and Conscription: Can They Be Reconciled?; Crime and Criminals: What Should We Do About Them?; Drug Scene:

Help or Hang-up?; Education and Opportunity: For What and For Whom?; Environmental Crisis: Will We Survive?; Foreign Policy: Intervention, Involvement, or Isolation?; Population and Survival: Can We Win the Race?; Poverty in an Affluent Society: Personal Problem or National Disgrace?; Prejudice and Discrimination: Can We Eliminate Them?; Propaganda, Polls and Public Opinion: Are the People Manipulated?; Teen-Agers and Sex: Revolution or Reaction?; Violence in America: What is the Alternative?; Voices of Dissent: Positive or Disruptive Evil?

•*Oxford Spectrum Series,* Oxford Book Company. From $1.25-$1.53/book. American Judicial System; American Labor Movement; American Presidency; Congress: The National Legislature; Government and Politics in Today's World; Minorities in Our Society.

•*Peoples Bicentennial Commission Series,* Bantam. From $1.25-$1.95/book. Common Sense II: The Case Against Corporate Tyranny; Peoples Bicentennial Commission Early American Almanac; Peoples Bicentennial Commission Quiz Book of the American Revolution; Voices of the American Revolution.

•*The Politics Of Government Series,* Barron's Educational Series. From $1.56-$2.20/book. The Corporations and Social Change; Does the Citizen Stand a Chance?; The Politics of a State Legislature: New York; National Conventions: Nominations Under the Big Top; The Politics of People-Power: Interest Groups and Lobbies in New York State; The Politics of Urbanism: The New Federalism; The President and Congress: Toward a New Power Balance; Pressures Upon Congress: Legislation by Lobby.

•*Public Issues Series,* Xerox Education Publications. $.50/book. Community Change: Law, Politics, and Social Attitudes; The Immigrant's Experience: Cultural Variety and the "Melting Pot"; The Lawsuit: Legal Reasoning and Civil Procedure; Municipal Politics: Interest Groups and the Government; Nazi Germany: Social Forces and Personal Responsibility; Negro Views of America: The Legacy of Oppression; The New Deal: Free Enterprise and Public Planning; Privacy: The Control of Personal Information; The Progressive Era: Abundance, Poverty and Reform; Race and Education: Integration and Community Control; The Railroad era: Business Competition and Public Interest; Religious Freedom: Minority Faiths and Majority Rule; Rights of the Accused: Criminal Procedure and Public Security; The Rise of Organized Labor; Science and Public Policy: Uses and Control of Knowledge; Social Action: Dilemmas and Strategies; Taking a Stand: A Guide to Clear Discussion of Public Issues.

•*Urban America Series,* Pendulum. $.75/book. Delinquency and Crime; The Ghetto Family; Health and the Poor; Jobs and the Color Barrier; Narcotics and Drug Abuse; Police, Courts and the Ghetto; The Poor Pay and Pay; Riots; Veneral Disease; The War on Poverty.

Chapter 3

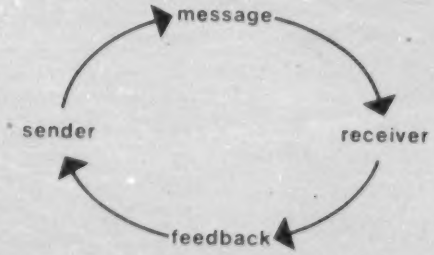
Communication Course

Throughout the program students will have to communicate with people in diverse contexts. In coursework and in governance they will have to work with peers, giving one another helpful advice and criticism. In internships they will need to listen carefully and to respond sensitively to those they may be trying to help. In action projects, they will have to "sell" ideas to adults, appealing to the interests of and making persuasive arguments to various audiences in the community at large. Students' success in these activities depends largely on communication skills, or the extent to which they can use written and spoken language to achieve personal and group goals.

I. Goals and Course Structure

A particular model of human communication lies behind this course. Rather than viewing communication as a one-way act in which the sender of a message transmits something to a receiver, we construe a circular process. The sender of a message uses language (written, spoken, non-verbal) to make an impact on an intended receiver (a reader, a listener, an observer). In most interpersonal situations there is opportunity for the receiver to react in some way with a "feedback" message, usually with spoken words and non-verbal cues. That feedback may affect the next message sent as the original "sender" becomes a "receiver," and so on:

COMMUNICATION MODEL



While the model may seem most appropriate in a two-person dialogue situation, it can also be applied to communication within groups and to communication between an individual and a "public" audience. The model also has relevance as a political ideal, for it suggests a circular flow of influence rather than a one-way system in which governing elites manipulate the governed without receiving feedback from them.

As we create messages in order to influence others, we can view ourselves simultaneously as senders and receivers. To exercise influence with the messages we send, we must try to identify our actual intended messages, and anticipate the way potential receivers will respond to different ways in which the message might be delivered. As "receivers," we should be alert to the way we interpret messages so as to understand how we might be influenced by the messages of others. According to the model, communication skills involve technical competence in constructing messages (especially in writing and speaking) and in receiving them (reading and listening), but they also require a perceptive analytic perspective: looking upon oneself as sender and receiver, looking upon one's audience as receiver and sender, and looking upon the way the style and content of messages can affect oneself and one's audience.

Students should see themselves as senders and receivers, and should investigate how their ideas and feelings are displayed and affected by the language they use and perceive. First, they should take stock of personal strengths and weaknesses as communicators. This should occur at three levels: intrapersonal (within oneself), interpersonal (with other single individuals), group (with two or more people at once), and public (in the role of advocate to a generalized audience). Second, students should look at others as senders and receivers, and how communication from others affects oneself. This requires attention to idiosyncratic and to common ways that people perceive messages. To accurately perceive another person's frame of reference, students will have to become sensitive to special cues in written, spoken and non-verbal language. Finally, based on increased awareness of self and others, students should work on technical skills through which their awareness can be applied. That is, language skills in reading, writing, speaking and listening must be enhanced.

The communication course responds primarily to two of the seven main goals of the program: to communicate effectively through written and spoken language and to work cooperatively in groups. The course should meet about six hours per week during the first semester in groups of about fifteen students. It can be organized into five parts. First students will get acquainted with one another and be introduced to basic elements of communication. They can then move in a sequence from understanding of self (intrapersonal), to interpersonal, to group, and finally to "one-to-group" or public communication. Course

activities should involve students extensively in sending messages to each other and to hypothetical audiences through speaking and writing, and in receiving or interpreting (i.e., listening and reading) messages sent to them by peers and other "senders."

II. Activities

A. Introduction to Communication

Establishing Trust. To look at communication openly and honestly within a group requires a high degree of trust among members. Trust takes time to develop and cannot be built through class exercises alone, but it is important for group members to get to know each other at the outset and to begin to share experiences. There are many ways to "break the ice"—through structured exercises, games, or informal personal introductions. In a "personal introduction" each student might take five to ten minutes to talk about himself or herself, possibly discussing a significant personal experience or some other topic chosen by the class. In addition to providing members with biographical information about one another, this activity generates data that can serve as a basis for analyzing problems in the sending and receiving of messages; e.g., poor listening skills, anxiety, ambiguous intentions. Sharing introductions can promote a sense of equality (everyone is equal in their desire to send an effective message and to receive them sensitively) and break down previously formed cliques. If they are written or tape-recorded, introductions can be preserved and referred to later, but such information should be recorded and stored only with consent of the students. That is, a norm of respect for each student's privacy must be established early—it is critical to generation of trust.

A variation on individual introductions is called "building the group." Here members first introduce themselves, one to another in dyads, then each dyad joins another, introducing all members to one another, and so on until the entire class is involved in introducing everyone. Many outdoor activities—adventures and athletics—can also acquaint people, build unity in the group, and offer data about communication for students to analyze. To the extent that the activities allow students to depend upon one another and to share something of themselves without threat of censure or disapproval, trust can be gradually developed.

Communication Concepts. Early in the course conceptualization of communication such as the model proposed here should be introduced. Students should learn communication terminology (sender, receiver, feedback, verbal and non-verbal messages, interference) and practice applying it. They all might try to send a given message to a variety of people, in written and oral form, compare how they constructed different messages, and try to gain feedback on how

the messages were received. By reading a common passage in literature, listening to a speech, observing a film, students can compare how different people "receive" common messages differently. To apply communication concepts students might observe "real life" interaction –on the job, in the family, at social occasions, and try to identify effective versus ineffective communication loops and common types of interference.

We suggest that each student begin a journal containing examples of and reactions to communication observed in daily life. Entries would include some class assignments, cartoons and interesting quotations related to communication, and most important, autobiographical reflections on their attempts to communicate in writing and in the spoken word. In the journal students should try to assess their own successes and failures in communication. Since the point of the journal is to sharpen student observation of communication and to build skills in written self-expression, the journal should be written to be shared with teacher and peers. In addition, writing a separate completely private journal can stimulate introspection and build confidence in writing. The writing of private journals should, therefore, be encouraged, but these should not be shared in class.

Students might be asked to build their own communication models, theories, and explanations of communication. They will need to have an understanding of "model" as an abstract representation of more concrete events, and they should be encouraged to search for their own ways of construing the topic, rather than passively accepting the model proposed here.

Perception. The concept of perception helps to explain why messages sent are not always equivalent to messages received, and students should learn how differences in people affect their perception. Students might study how different authors, witnesses, classmates seem to perceive given events differently, and then try to role-play these people in a discussion of some issue. The point here is not to make gross generalizations or stereotypes about how different people view the world, nor to study influences of human perception through social psychological research. Rather, the point is to scrutinize one's own language and the language of others to see how different perceptions may be responsible for different messages on identical topics.

Verbal Communication. To increase facility with words, we need to expand vocabulary, but this is not simply a matter of mastering standard dictionary definitions of unfamiliar terms. It is more important to become familiar with actual usage. In group settings, for example, some words are used to put people down, others to build them up, some to hide and some to reveal oneself. Certain words have profoundly

different meanings to different regional or cultural groups, or within a given group the same word may have different meanings, depending on the context. The use of "special" vocabularies involving slang, technical terms, and unique cultural terms may be particularly significant in attempts to influence public policy. To heighten awareness and expand their repertoire, several activities should ask students to compare different definitions of words, to describe the circumstances in which they would or would not use certain words, to use words "new" to them in ways that their classmates find meaningful. Students can begin to develop sensitivity to one another by noting the "favorite" words that each seems to use. In short, a course in communication should give much attention to meaning and use of words.

Nonverbal Communication. People comunicate without words in many ways, and students enjoy investigating messages sent through physical appearance, gestures, posture, facial expression, vocal cues, spatial relations. Students can study messages that appear to be sent through different kinds of clothes, how people handle objects, the pitch, rate, volume, tone of their voices. They can consider situations in which touching is considered an acceptable or forbidden form of communication. By role-playing and acting, students can deliberately try to communicate different emotions and ideas through non-verbal cues, and they can try to inform each other about the non-verbal messages that seem to be sent whether intentional or unintentional. Notes taken on important non-verbal communication in their daily life, can later be recorded in the journals and discussed.

B. Intrapersonal Communication

To communicate effectively, we assume that the individual must, first of all, know what one really wants to say and how one tends to receive messages from others. To find out about ourselves, we need to "communicate" with self, and there are numerous approaches to "self-awareness," from transcendental meditation to various forms of therapy. We have no intent here to promote total self-disclosure, psychotherapy, or any profound emotional transformation. Rather, the goal is to help the student look at himself or herself as a communicator. A number of questions could be asked: What kinds of messages do I feel I can express well to others, and in what areas do I have difficulty expressing myself? What situations make me feel comfortable and uncomfortable? What image do I have of myself as a communicator (a listener, a persuader, a clarifier) ? How competent? How do others view me? What do I really want to say? What do I really want to hear?

Questions like these can be explored in conferences with peers and the teacher. Special activities can also be assigned: values clarification exercises may help students discover some of their most strongly held

values; to dramatize one's self image, students might try to "identify" themselves with a person in literature, a movie, or the public spotlight; the teacher might present a variety of typical communication situations and ask students to role-play each other; fantasies based on "I wish" or "I fear" statements could clarify much about student self-image as a communicator; students might seek descriptions and inventories from peers, relatives, and others who assess the student as a communicator. Finally, entries in the journals should address these questions. When teacher and student feel that sufficient examination of self has taken place, an individual agenda of communication skills should be developed and pursued. Throughout the course, but especially during this part, special care should be taken not to invade students' privacy.

C. Interpersonal Communication

This part of the course concentrates on one-to-one communication between two people. There are many possible approaches, but we are much impressed by the Carkhuff Helping Model, which has been researched and used successfully at the high school level. The goal here is to develop skills in listening and responding characterized by such traits as empathy, respect, warmth, genuineness, confrontation, and immediacy. To facilitate each of these, exercises and specific training is aimed at differentiating the affect and content of messages, recognizing and communicating in non-verbal language, identifying, owning and responding to feelings, and exploring values and attitudes. Students can be rated on an "Active Listening Scale" which classifies communication on five levels (see Gazda, 1973). In addition to rating themselves, students might observe dialogue in daily life, in plays or novels, and reflect upon why the levels seem to vary from person to person and from one situation to another. The training model is based in part on work by Carl Rogers, and, as the title indicates, construes communication primarily as an activity in which humans try to help each other.

Improvement in interpersonal communication need not depend on use of the Carkhuff model. Students can practice speaking and writing to each other, listening to and reading the messages of each other in a variety of situations. Video and audio tapes can show students how they look and sound. Students can paraphrase the messages they "receive," giving an indication to the senders of what was communicated. In this course there should be much opportunity to speak and to write to other people, and to have feedback from them on how the message comes across. In addition, students can analyze the behavior of others (parents, counselors, friends), evaluating the quality of interpersonal communication.

D. Group Communication

The central question for the student in this part of the course should

be "How can I improve my communication within groups to pursue personal and group goals in public affairs?" We emphasize collective action as a means to exert influence. The effectiveness of collective action will often vary, however, depending on the quality of communication within and among groups. Therefore, students should learn to apply communication skills to build collective strength and cooperation in groups.

Overview of Groups. Groups can be introduced through examination of the functions that groups serve for individuals and the functions individuals serve in groups, especially in public affairs. Students should look at their own groups (school, family, social clique, clubs, etc.) and try to describe the kinds of communication required for effective membership in these. In addition, they should observe communication in local activist groups and try to identify what seems to be necessary for successful vs. unsuccessful communication within and between groups.

Problem-Solving and Position-Taking in Groups. A major function of groups is the creation of positions, policy responses, "solutions" to different social problems. Groups decide what they believe should be done about vandalism, rock concerts, or housing code enforcement. In working toward "solutions" and defensible positions, groups must deal not only with the substance of the problems, but also with building consensus among individual members, some of whom may hold opposing views. In other words the task is not simply to arrive at a "rational" position, but one which many people in the group will support. This usually requires a good deal of discussion among members, and on controversial public issues, many roadblocks can impede progress.

Groups might benefit from an outline of steps in problem-solving; for example, 1) select and phrase the issue; 2) define important terms and limit the issues; 3) establish criteria for an effective "solution," 4) suggest alternative solutions, investigate and evaluate their merit; 5) select a solution. As a group tries to implement a process of this sort, members will need discussion skills: sensitive listening and offering feedback to individuals, distinguishing between relevant and irrelevant points to keep the discussion on the issue, summarizing what seems to have been resolved and unresolved, using stipulation to move the discussion along when it seems bogged down in unresolvable problems. Such skills can be taught directly (Oliver and Newmann, *Taking A Stand*), and they should be applied through culminating exercises that require students to bring individual beliefs, value preferences, and newly acquired information into a group and to develop a consensus they would be willing to defend publicly.

This section may imply primarily oral communication—students speaking and listening to each other. Considerable attention, however,

can be given to reading and writing; for example, students can read dialogues or transcripts of group meetings and analyze the apparent communication problems. They can then re-write the meeting as they would prefer it to have occured, showing more productive issue-resolution among the members.

Building Group Cohesion. Here we focus less on specific communication skills and more on cognitive understanding of what builds unity, cooperation, cohesion so a group can accomplish its work. A major topic is leadership. What are alternative styles of leadership, and are some necessarily more effective than others? What kinds of leadership styles do the students find particularly attractive, and who among the students seems capable of exercising them? Students should be given the chance to try different leadership roles in different group tasks. In their journals students could write about the extent to which they assume leader and follower roles in the groups to which they belong, and the satisfactions and frustrations which the different roles seem to bring.

Patterns of decision-making within a group can also be studied, as students try to sharpen awareness of who participates and in what roles. The distinction between participation and influence, for example, might be noted: why do some people who speak infrequently seem to capture attention, while others who talk more are often not as influential? Are there any particular patterns of decision-making and interaction that seem to enhance group cohesiveness? For what kinds of group decisions should all members have an equal say, and what kinds of decisions are best delegated?

Students should learn to "diagnose" group behavior with regard to cohesiveness: to what extent does this group seem to be "together" and capable of achieving its goals? What, if anything, seems to be wrong, and if I were in the group what might I say or do to help it along? This can be pursued through live observation and reading case studies. Students could give advice orally and in writing to actual or to role-playing members of groups, and the members could respond on both the substance of the advice and the clarity of the student's communication.

E. Public Communication

The exercise of influence in public affairs requires preparation of diverse public communications: testimony at hearings, speeches to audiences of potential supporters, letters to the editor, news releases, special brochures. Communication skills related to some of these items will be dealt with in the second semester course on the public message, and in skill clinics connected with the action project. However, the communication course should offer an introduction to public communication, and we suggest that it begin with speech writing and

delivery. Without trying to summarize the field of teaching speech and communication, we simply suggest exercises in this area. The writing and delivery of speeches should be grounded in an analytic perspective which helps the student look at characteristics of potential audiences, along with criteria for speech preparation that seem to apply to almost any audience. Consistent with other approaches in this course, students should receive feedback from their peers orally and in writing on the speeches they prepare.

III. Reading and Writing

We have suggested different reading and writing assignments throughout the course; for example, writing to fellow students and other audiences and receiving written feedback on those messages; reading expository material on communication and transcripts or case studies; students writing their own interpretations of various communication attempts. Teachers must offer technical assistance to students, based on individual needs. As with other courses, we also suggest that each student keep a record of all the reading and writing done in connection with the course. In this course, the journal will be a major writing effort.

IV. Individuation

The course is designed as a group experience in which all students move through the five phases together. At the same time, each student should be required to assess his or her own strengths and weaknesses as "communicator" with individuals and groups, in the role of sender and receiver, and with regard to written, spoken and nonverbal language. Each student should contract with the teacher to work on a specific set of skills within the framework of different parts of the course.

V. Evaluation

The main objectives of the course are effective communication and cooperative group work. Each objective is approached by teaching analytic frameworks as well as applied communication skills. Evaluation of student performance could concentrate both on the student's success in applying the analytic frameworks and on success in direct communication and group participation activities. Below we suggest activities in each area.

1. How effectively does the student communicate?
   a. reading - testing student interpretation of assigned reading.
   b. writing - feedback on clarity and technical competence of writing, including reactions from peers about one's effectiveness as a writer.
   c. speaking - assessments from teacher and peers on speaking effectiveness.

d. listening - Carkhuff Active Listening Scale.

2. How effectively does the student participate in groups? Feedback from teacher and peers.
3. How well can the student analyze communication? Tests and observation assignments asking the student to describe what is happening and what are the problems in different communication situations.
4. How well can the student analyze group dynamics? Tests and observation assignments asking the student to comment upon what is happening in a group, and what could be done to improve cooperation.

As an example of 4., students could be given a tape of a group discussion and asked to describe the role each person played in facilitating discussion and the nature of decision-making and leadership patterns evident in the group. The teacher would then assess the thoroughness of the student's analysis. Observational skills can also be tested through more objective multiple choice items; for example, the teacher could present a transcript of a group dialogue, numbered by line, and then ask questions in the format: "At line 43, the discussion best illustrates a) conflict in leadership; b) irrelevant issue raised; c) lack of sensitivity between speakers; d) issue resolution."

Evaluation of student performance could be tied in part to particular goals designated in individual student contracts with the teacher. In addition to qualitative judgments about how well a student has done at the end of the course, we recommend quantitative inventories of work actually accomplished (e.g., the number of different journal entries made, the number of speeches given, the number of times the student took leadership in summarizing group discussion).

VI. Integration with Other Components

The course complements the political-legal process course by teaching the taking of positions in a group context. It offers a place to discuss communication issues observed in the internship and field observations of the political-legal process course. It provides a foundation for group work in the second semester action project, and introduces public communication skills to be followed up in the public message.

VII. Materials and Resources

Abernathy, Elton, *The Advocate: A Manual of Persuasion*, David McKay Company, 1964. $3.95. Excellent presentation of the fundamentals of advocacy and argument.

**Adventure Curriculum*, Project Adventure, 1975. $4.00. Includes a variety of physical activities requiring initiative and problem-solving of groups.

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*Indicates materials appropriate for direct use with students.

*Allen, R.R., Sharol Parish and C. David Mortensen, *Communication: Interacting Through Speech*, Merrill, 1974. $7.92 text, $1.50 teacher guide. One of the few good high school communication texts. Expository material and student exercises reflecting most of the elements in the communication course.

Allen, R.R., S. Clay Willmington, Joe Sprague, *Speech Communication in the Secondary School*, 2nd ed., Allyn and Bacon, 1976. $10.95. College level, contemporary approach to teaching speech communication. Includes ideas for public speaking, interpersonal communication, theatre, radio, TV, film.

Barbour, Alton and Alvin A. Goldberg, *Interpersonal Communication: Teaching Strategies and Resources*, ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, 1974. $2.50. Contents dovetail many of the suggestions for the communication course presented here. Includes information on communication models, principles of communication perception, interpersonal communication concepts, and resources on theories, textbooks, and methods of teaching interpersonal communication.

*Barker, Larry L., *Listening Behavior*, Prentice-Hall, 1971. $4.95. Discussion of listening as a key factor in the communication process, listening problems, and suggestions to improve listening skills.

Berne, Eric, *Games People Play*, Grove Press, 1964. $1.45. A discussion of social strategies, pointing out the game-playing nature of many human behaviors.

Bernier, Joseph, *Active Listening Skills: Staff Development, A Cognitive Viewpoint*, Minnesota State Department of Education, Student Services, 1976. $4.25. A structured approach for teaching active listening skills illuminating the thought processes behind listening techniques.

Boettinger, Henry M., *Moving Mountains or The Art & Craft of Letting Others See Things Your Way*, Collier MacMillan, 1969. $1.95. Comprehensive and concrete suggestions on presenting ideas, holding others' attention, matching style and material, coping with special terms. The book is an ideal reference for the action project and public message.

*Carkhuff, Robert R., *The Art of Problem Solving*, Carkhuff Associates, Inc., 1973. $5.95. One of several Carkhuff books excellent for student use.

*Condon, John C., Jr., *Semantics and Communication*, MacMillan, 1966. $2.95. Easily readable and understandable, this book provides insight into meanings and language as selectively perceived by people with different experience.

Egan, Gerard, *The Skilled Helper: A Model For Systematic Helping and Interpersonal Relating*, Brooks/Cole, 1975. $7.95. A practical model for doing counseling. Includes the helping model and a helper-skills training program. Includes a training manual: *Exercises in Helping Skills*.

Elsbree, Langdon and Frederick Bracher, *Heath's Brief Handbook of Usage*, 8th edition, D.C. Heath Co., 1972. $4.95. A clear, comprehensive step-by-step approach to composition that uses rhetorical principles in creative, persuasive writing. Includes excellent examples.

*Fabun, Don (Ed.), *Communications: The Transfer of Meaning*, Glencoe Press, 1968. $1.50. An excellent simplified introduction to the study of communication with emphasis on selective perception and semantics.

Fast, Julius, *Body Language*, M. Evans and Co., 1970. $5.95. Simplified composite of major studies in nonverbal language. Based on the assumption that "your body doesn't know how to lie," it discusses a wide range of gestures.

Galvin, Kathleen M. and Cassandra L. Book, *Person To Person: An Introduction to Speech Communication*, National Textbook Co., 1976. $7.45. Excellent communication course

text which follows the general theory and format of this chapter. Active, alive presentation and activities. Includes teachers manual.

Galvin, Kathleen M. and Cassandra L. Book, *Speech Communication: An Interpersonal Approach for Teachers*, National Textbook Co., 1972. $4.50. A supplementary handbook for teachers of communication providing behaviorally oriented objectives, exercises, print and non-print resource materials, and an annotated bibliography of communication resource books.

Gazda, George M., *Human Relations Development: A Manual for Educators*, Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1973. $5.95. Excellent manual offering theory and exercises of the Carkhuff Helping Model.

*Heintz, Ann, B.V.M., *Persuasion*, Loyola University Press, 1970. $3.00 text, $1.50 teacher guide. Provides a heavily visual approach to modern persuasion techniques. Deals with the persuader's image, audience, and argument.

*Houghton Mifflin Communication Workshop, *Expressing: Everyday Communication; Investigating: Gathering Information; Participating: Public Speaking; Debate and Discussion; Presenting: Acting and Directing; Relating: Everyday Communication*, Houghton Mifflin, 1975. From $2.40-$3.24/book. Handbooks containing theory and structured exercises. Excellent for teachers and students, films and other materials. Teacher guides.

*Johnson, David W., *Reaching Out: Interpersonal Effectiveness and Self-Actualization*, Prentice-Hall, 1972. $5.95. A variety of interpersonal communication exercises specifically designed for youth. Topics include self-disclosure, verbal and nonverbal expression of feelings, helpful styles of listening and responding, and many more. Excellent.

*Johnson, David W. and Frank Johnson, *Joining Together: Group Theory and Group Skills*, Prentice-Hall, 1975. $6.95. Excellent materials dealing especially with group skills.

*Krupar, Karen R., *Communication Games*, Free Press, 1973. $3.95. A series of classroom games to help students learn the elements of communication. Participant and teacher manual.

Leubitz, Lois, *Nonverbal Communication: A Teacher's Resource Package*, National Textbook Co., 1973. $15.00. Includes photographs, diagrams, games, and illustrations on nonverbal communication concepts. Provides activities designed to illustrate the nonverbal principles.

Mehrabian, Albert, *Silent Messages*, Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1971. $3.50. Considers nonverbal messages. Topics include liking, power, inconsistent messages, and social behavior. Suggested readings with bibliographic references provided for each chapter.

*Meredith, Robert C., *Writing In Action, A Text For Young Writers*, National Textbook Co., 1975. $5.50 Designed to improve skills of self-expression, the text follows a natural progression, beginning with autobiographical sketches, and ending in essays of an expository and persuasive nature.

Mosher, Ralph L. and Norman A. Sprinthall, "Psychological Education: A Means to Promote Personal Development During Adolescence," in Purpel, David E. and Maurice Belanger (Eds.), *Curriculum and the Cultural Revolution*, McCutchan, 1972. $11.50. General article on an experimental psychological education program. *Counseling Psychologist*, 2, No. 4 (1971) :3-82.

Nadeau, Ray E., *Speech-Communication: A Modern Approach*, Addison-Wesley, 1973. $4.00 text, $1.52 teacher guide. Very good communication text.

*Oliver, Donald W. and Fred M. Newmann, *Taking a Stand: A Guide to Clear Discussion of Public Issues*. See Chapter 2 bibliography.

Pfeiffer, J. William and John E. Jones, *A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training*, 5 vols., University Associates Press, 1969, 1971. $5.00. Each volume is a compilation of exercises and activities used in human relations training groups, easily adaptable.

Pfeiffer, J. William and John E. Jones, 1976 *Handbook for Group Facilitators*, University Associates Press, 1976. $10.00. Practical, current, high quality training materials for group facilitators. Includes structured experiences, instrumentation, lecturettes, theory and practice, and resources. An annual publication.

Phillips, Gerald M., *Communication and the Small Group*, Bobbs-Merrill, 1966. $2.25. Examines various types of groups and points up the importance of studying small groups in order to train participants to function more effectively in them. Topics treated include: personality variables of group members, leadership styles, small-group discussion guides, problem-solving discussions. A good reference book, useful in preparing handouts.

*Powell, John, *Why Am I Afraid To Tell You Who I Am?*, Argus Communications, 1969. $1.95. Powell develops five levels of communication and discusses the roles we play while interacting with others. Dynamic, provocative reading for teachers and students.

The Psychology Teacher's Resource Book, American Psychological Assoc., 1973. $3.00. Includes reviews of introductory psychology textbooks, books of readings, novels, case studies, biographies, audio-visual materials, reference materials.

*Rogers, Carl, *On Becoming A Person*, Houghton-Mifflin, 1961. $8.50. A thought provoking work that deals with meanings and methods of personal growth, helping relationships, and creativity. Some of Rogers' stimulating essays on the teaching-learning process and breakdowns in communication.

Samuels, Mimi and Don Samuels, *The Complete Handbook of Peer Counseling*, Fiesta Publishing, 1975. $5.95. An introduction to peer counseling and directions on how to implement a peer counseling program.

Schmuck, Richard A. and Patricia A. Schmuck, *Group Processes in the Classroom*, Wm. C. Brown Co., 1971. $4.95. Includes basic concepts of group dynamics theory and chapters on group processes in the classroom, leadership, attraction, norms, communication, developmental stages, and more. Very good introduction to group theory and processes.

Shaver, James P. and A. Guy Larkins, *Decision-Making in a Democracy*. See Chapter 2 bibliography.

*Simon, Sidney B., Robert C. Hayley and David D. Britton, *Composition for Personal Growth: Values Clarification Through Writing*, Hart, 1973. $4.95. A program for teaching composition through guided activities and a wide range of written assignments aimed at personal growth and increased effectiveness in verbal communication.

*Simon, Sidney B., Leland W. Howe and Howard Kirschenbaum, *Values Clarification, A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students*, Hart, 1972. $4.95. A short presentation of the theory behind values clarification and 79 strategies for classroom use.

*Simpson, Benjy, *Initiative Games*, Colorado Outward Bound Clearing House, 1976. $3.00. Describes outdoor activities found successful by Outward Bound instructors in building and testing group organization, efficiency, and spirit.

*Sociological Resources for the Social Studies, *Small Group Processes*, Allyn & Bacon, 1971. 10 copies for $7.47, teacher's guide $1.59. Classroom experiments on conformity, risk-taking, participation and feedback in group contexts.

*Stanford, Gene and Barbara D. Stanford, *Learning Discussion Skills Through Games*, Citation Press, 1969. $1.65. Small, excellent handbook offering a program of concentrated instruction and practice in discussion skills.

Stewart, John (Ed.), *Bridges Not Walls: A Book About Interpersonal Communication*, Addison-Wesley, 1972. $4.95. A stimulating overview and explanation of various approaches to interpersonal communication. A valuable anthology.

Superka, Douglas P., Christine Ahrens, Judith E. Hedstrom, Luther J. Ford and Patricia L. Johnson, *Values Education Sourcebook*, Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 1976. $10.95. Conceptual approaches, materials analyses, and an annotated bibliography on values education.

Wilmot, William W., *Dyadic Communication: A Transactional Perspective*, Addison-Wesley, 1975. $4.95. One-to-one communication theory. Excellent sections on self-perception and perception of others.

Chapter 4
Community Service Internship

I. Goals and Structure

The internship is an experience which invites students to apply and enhance instruction from the political-legal process and communication courses and which sets the stage and whets the appetite for advocacy-oriented involvement in the second semester. A meaningful experience of this sort requires sustained student involvement and students becoming responsible for contributing to the work of an adult institution that tries to serve the community.

Coleman (1974) and others have persuasively shown that the typical student role severely limits the opportunity to learn competencies of adulthood. In school students are segregated from both older and younger people; they are confined to interact with only a small segment of the adult population (those interested in teaching young people); they are denied opportunities to care for others and to work collectively with others (the goal of school is *individual* achievement). Because of such constraints, much school activity is seen as "meaningless" by adolescent youth who, as biological adults, require different social roles to learn adult competencies. The internship expands the social context in which learning can occur, thereby responding to youth's developmental needs.

Students will work alongside adults in hospitals, day care centers, homes for the elderly, in the offices of journalists, attorneys, lobbyists, in TV and radio studios, in meeting places of interest groups and grass roots citizen organizations, in legislative and judicial halls. They will be expected to learn from the adults they work with, but also to contribute to the work of the agency or group that offers the internship. The central purpose is not vocational training, nor to provide an altruistic experience, although many students will value internships for these reasons. In the context of the total citizenship program, the main goal is to offer authentic work in institutions beyond school so that students can learn more about exerting influence in the adult world.

Since many existing internship programs at the secondary level have documented their educational value to students and their

contributions to communities (see Materials and Resources below), we will not dwell here on specific examples. To convey a sense of the internship's potential, however, we share the following excerpts from one program.

Job description: Co-therapist in a therapeutic nursery for pre-school emotionally disturbed children.
Adult Agency Sponsor Comments:

". . . Mary worked as a co-therapist within the classroom and on the bus, and by attending intake staffings and review staffings, she became aware of other kinds of work at the community mental health center. . . She was a tremendous asset to the program, the children became very attracted to her. . ."

Intern Comment:

"I learned very valuable information about the mental health of children, some of the dynamics of an 8-5 job, and my interest in early childhood education was rekindled and *set ablaze.*"

Job Description: Page in the State House of Representatives and aide to the clerk of the State Government Committee.
Adult Agency Sponsor Comments:

"Jack's contributions to the Committee were extremely helpful. The work consisted of preparing information for distribution, setting up for public hearings, a limited amount of research, occasional work for individual Committee members . . . After he left, staff members commented that they missed him and thought of him as part of the staff."

Intern Comments:

"I am really proud of what I did and how I did it. The educational experience of working with the legislators was so much more than a civics class. The people helped me find my confidence and express my thoughts about government and the way it runs."

We suggest that students spend the equivalent of two mornings per week (e.g., from 8 a.m. to 12 noon) for twelve weeks working with the cooperating agency,* under direct supervision of a sponsor (a member of the cooperating agency) who, along with a staff contact from the school, will help the student intern perform various functions, outlined in a contract devised and signed by the student, sponsor and staff contact. One afternoon per week, students will meet in support groups at school where, with staff guidance, they will discuss the internships.

The intern might work in an understudy relationship to one adult for

*Throughout this chapter we use "agency" to refer to any group or organization where an intern is placed. The term is not restricted to large public bureaucracies, but includes small businesses, interest groups, voluntary associations.

the entire period (e.g., as an aide to a TV news reporter), might have short tours of duty among different groups (e.g., helping in several different departments in an environmental protection agency), might be involved in special projects (e.g., gathering data for a neighborhood organization), might offer direct social services to "clients" (e.g., tutoring young children or assisting the elderly). The placement should expose the student to the daily functioning of the agency, should provide opportunities for the student to communicate actively with agency people (rather than passively observe them), and should require that the student make a contribution to the agency's mission.

Much precedent suggests that interns should not be paid. While pay would seem legitimate in a vocationally-oriented work study program, the employer-employee relationship could work against this program's broader educational objectives. As an employee, the student's time could well be totally consumed by a narrow range of work, and the relationship between student and sponsor could be highly constrained. While many students might need the funds and not wish to work "for free," scheduling of internships during normal school hours would not deprive them of other opportunities to earn. As a practical matter, it would be difficult to find agencies willing to offer pay for the kinds of experiences we desire.

II. Site Preparation

Prior to the beginning of the program (e.g., during the summer), staff should allow the equivalent of about eight weeks' work to contact potential internship sites, to explain the internship to adults on site, to make judgments about the adequacy of the sites, and for those sites that will participate, to work with the sponsor in arranging details. To explain the internship, a two or three page flyer should be distributed, giving the rationale and details regarding school-agency cooperation, and showing through examples how the program can benefit both the interns and the cooperating agencies. The flyer is important, for it will establish the program's public image and convey a sense of the school staff's competence in running it.

In searching for sponsors, contact local government officials, ministerial the local volunteer association, hot-line and referral services, individual activists and, of course, colleagues and parents in the school community. Success in internships is probably determined more by the quality of individual adult sponsors than by the type of agency, so we emphasize the importance of finding adults known for their interest in youth, regardless of their field of work. Usually, the best way to make contact is through a letter, with flyer enclosed, to a specific person in an agency, followed by a phone call, and then a personal visit to the site. To make sure that the internship is approved by the proper authority at the agency and that an appropriate individual sponsor is

assigned, it may be necessary to meet with different people within an agency.

In discussing the internship, agency people often ask, "What can a kid do here?" Rather than immediately suggesting specific possibilities, it is helpful to reiterate the general purpose of the program, and to ask the agency person to suggest the kind of agency work that seems relevant. Once committed to the general idea, agency heads frequently develop their own job definitions, and the more they invest in devising internships, the more they will contribute to make them work. In short, try to stimulate the educational imaginations of agency people before offering your own suggestions. Ideally we prefer that an agency construes internship broadly and agrees to work with a variety of students in a variety of possible capacities. Final decisions about specific requirements for each individual student should, whenever possible, await negotiation between the intern and sponsor, with advice from the staff contact.

At the first meeting with the agency or soon thereafter, plans should be made for finding an individual sponsor. In some cases the sponsor will have intensive, continuous contact with students, in others he or she will act more as a coordinator, or a person to see when troubles arise. All sponsors, however, should view themselves as responsible for making the internship as productive as possible for the student and the agency. This includes orienting the student to the work, drawing a contract with the student (amenable to change), providing periodic supervision, giving evaluative feedback on the student's performance, and working with the school staff contact. Sponsors should explain to the staff contact how each of these functions will be fulfilled. As you scout for placements, record the results on a form so that staff and students will have ready access to people at each site and a knowledge of what kind of work can be expected.

Agencies must understand that no matter how impressive the site appears, the school cannot promise that an intern will be assigned, for students will be choosing their placements from among many alternatives. Final assignments will depend somewhat on student interests and individual contract negotiations. Immediately before school begins, it would be helpful to alert the sites that students may be calling for an interview, to suggest procedures for conducting it, and to thank them again for their cooperation.

Because of the difficulties in monitoring sixty different internships, it may be necessary to set boundaries. Staff may need to concentrate internships in a particular geographic area, in particular fields (e. g., mental health or law), or at particular sites (e.g., choosing only those sites that can take several interns at once). While we would want to respond to the full range of student interests, scarce staff resources might require limiting options in these ways. At the same time, we

caution against placements which segregate the interns as a group from adult workers.

Schools may doubt whether a sufficient number of placements can be found in their community, and during the first year the location of sites will certainly require a good deal of effort. It may be reassuring to note, however, that internship programs in big cities and smaller communities around the country consistently report that adequate placement sites exceed the number of student volunteers. In other words, experience reveals a vast, untapped reservoir of adults willing to work with students in institutions beyond the school. Once a program becomes established, relatively little effort is required to locate sites.

III. Student Placement

Students should be oriented to the internship and select their placements during the first two weeks of the program. Staff should clarify objectives and guidelines, and inform students about alternative placements; we suggest a booklet or chart describing each of them in some detail. Written accounts might be supplemented by photographs, slides, tapes, or other information, and possibly by field trips to some sites. Staff might make special presentations on those agencies which seem to interest many students. Before students indicate preferences, there should be considerable opportunity for discussion, and during the period of deliberation, staff should encourage students to accept new challenges, rather than limit themselves to familiar, safer experiences. They should also help students clarify personal goals and motivations toward the internship.

After the orientation period, students should indicate a rank-ordered preference for particular placements (e.g., first to fifth choice). To the extent that conflicts emerge, they can be resolved by student negotiation or random drawing. If a particular site is inundated with student requests, a meeting might be held to emphasize alternatives and other procedures for reducing the demand. If any student feels particularly grieved with an assigned placement, an opportunity for a "hearing" should be extended.

Prior to contacting the site, students should be oriented about procedures for arranging an interview with the sponsor and drawing up a contract. Staff may need to explain ground rules of particular agencies regarding confidentiality, the rights of clients or patients, the problem of intimacy with co-workers, the authority of agency and school personnel. Negotiations with the sponsor and drawing a contract might be practiced through role-playing. The student should be encouraged to discuss with the sponsor very practical matters such as rules, supervision, expectations for student performance, and the student's personal goals. The contract should be signed by the student, sponsor and staff contact. It should be reviewed and subject to change after the first few weeks, but a date for "finalizing" it should be set.

Students should schedule all interviews within a few days. Some students may return from negotiations, or sponsors may call, with reports of unproductive meetings. Staff contacts should attend to these problems immediately. In some cases, staff will want to avert anticipated problems by accompanying the student to the interview or laying special groundwork ahead of the student contact. In some cases, students may, on their own initiative, discover sites or sponsors that have not been previously arranged. While staff will be understandably more committed to placements already established, the unexpected ones that students discover should be fairly considered. The placement process should be completed quickly. Endless deliberations on "what site is best for me" will be counterproductive and will depress morale.

IV. Supervision and Support

In spite of attempts to match student and agency interests, all preferences will not be met and it may take a good deal of effort to synchronize some intern-agency relationships. Students will hold diverse motivations. Some may have specific curiosities to satisfy, some may want to challenge and test themselves in new areas, some may be vaguely interested in "what's going on," some may have a commitment to a particular career or cause, some will view the internship apathetically only as another school requirement. Community agencies will also have different intentions. Some will see the internship as a public relations gimmick, some will see it as a way to take advantage of free labor, some may see it as a way to refresh and improve the agency's work, and some, of course, will be motivated primarily by the educational philosophy offered here. Running a successful program requires clarifying and negotiating among the diverse "agendas" that students and agencies bring to the internship. To help with this and other matters, the program relies on the staff contact, the sponsor and the support group.

Staff Contact. Most responsibility for the program falls with the staff contact, and many would recommend that one person handle this. Since our program provides for two teachers and sixty students, there is little room for hierarchy. While one staff member should be designated coordinator for the program as a whole, the two should share liaison work with the intern placements. This includes preparing the sites, keeping them informed of expectations of the school, helping to draw initial contracts, making periodic visits to the site (about two for each intern), monitoring the evaluation process (below), participating in support group discussions (below), and, of course, trouble-shooting as required.

Staff contacts cannot be intimately involved in the sixty internships, but they can be alert for issues that may not be easily recognized by student or sponsor. During site visits, staff contacts can gain insight

about the business at hand by asking to be shown around and introduced by the intern. The "tour" of the operation will trigger questions about the nature of the intern's participation in the agency. The staff contact should feel free to have private conversations with the sponsor as well as the intern, in addition to joint conferences. The educational purpose of monitoring by the staff contact is to see that progress is made toward completing the contract. Some sites will require more attention than others, and in many cases phone calls can substitute for on-site visits.

Sponsor. The on-site sponsor should be more than a facilitating administrator: also a source of inspiration and support to the intern. For this reason we propose only one sponsor per intern and preferably one intern per sponsor. The sponsor will be the key person in identifying the agency's expectations in finding the proper "slot" for the intern. If special technical training is required, it should be arranged by the sponsor. The sponsor should give the intern periodic feedback on performance (see evaluation) and also serve as a counselor for job-related problems.

Support Group. At least once a week (for two hours) students should meet at school in a support group of about 15 interns and one staff member. The purpose of the support group is to enhance the sixth general competency for the curriculum: "discuss concrete personal experiences of self and others in ways that contribute to the resolution of personal dilemmas encountered in civic action and that relate these experiences to more general human issues." This involves a combination of empathic personal support, practical advice for individual interns, and the critical perception and generalizing skills necessary to identify broader issues.

Staff should coordinate the support group, serving as activity planner, discussion leader, and counselor. Students should be encouraged to bring observations, stories, problems from the internships. At first the narratives may be sketchy and superficial, but eventually they should reflect more serious concerns with the efficacy of the agencies and students' own personal skills. Staff should anticipate common personal dilemmas (e.g. how openly critical of the agency can I be and still count on them to help me?), and should guide discussion not only to help with the individual's problem, but also to show the broader social relevance of such issues. According to Newmann (1975) activists are typically beset by five general "psycho-philosophic" dilemmas, and these could be considered by the support group. Conrad and Hedin (1976) suggest assignments to sharpen observation and questioning skills, and these could be emphasized with reference to themes in the political-legal process course. At times the support group may wish to invite a guest speaker, or to dramatize a typical intern situation. The intent here is not to require continuous "heavy"

verbal analysis. Support groups could be formed according to common fields or sites, friendships, or randomly.

V. Reading and Writing

Reading and writing will be more important in some internships than others, but minimum requirements should be set. We suggest that the intern and sponsor agree on three main reading assignments to be undertaken early in the internship. These might involve occupational and agency handbooks, expositions of social problems related to the agency's work, agency reports, important legislation or court decisions affecting the agency's work. Ideally, the intern's reading would be helpful to the agency; for example, by reviewing some literature to help the sponsor or finding resources for agency clients.

Writing assignments could include discussion of the internship in the student's journal, writing about a critical incident for discussion in the support group, writing projects of direct benefit to the agency (e.g., short reports or articles for an agency newsletter), and, of course, the final evaluation essay (below).

VI. Individuation

Internships may vary widely, and the intern will have considerable choice in placement, but we should not expect agencies to erect internships aimed exclusively at idiosyncratic student needs. At the same time, a thorough orientation will maximize good matches between individuals and agencies, and individuation will be strengthened by setting of precise personal goals in the internship contract. Periodic discussion and evaluation with the sponsor will call further attention to individual needs, but individual goals must not dominate the internship experience. They should remain secondary to the over-all goal of cooperative contribution.

VII. Evaluation

The purpose of evaluation is not to assess the intern's promise as an agency worker. While information about this might be included, the central task is to describe the extent to which provisions of the contract and personal educational goals have been met. If special skills and development occured that went beyond the contract, these, of course, should be recognized.

As a main evaluation tool we suggest a final essay from the sponsor, the intern, and the staff contact. This should be preceded by a less formal preliminary evaluation (after the first four weeks) which can serve as an "early warning" for serious problems. In the final essay, the sponsor should describe the intern's contribution to the agency over the 12-week period, especially with reference to contract provisions, but also with comments on effort, improvement, or learning beyond the contract. The intern's essay should give his or her own perspective

of what has been accomplished, and might also answer such questions as, "What has been your most difficult challenge and how have you responded?" Interns should be free to submit other evidence of learning or achievement (e.g., testimony from clients, or displays of work performed). The staff contact should offer comments in response to the other two essays, and possibly address the intern's contribution in the support group. Frequently, the staff contact will have little to add.

There should also be some evaluation of the agency, the sponsor, and the staff contact. To facilitate data collection, rating scales and multiple choice instruments could be given to each of the parties to assess each other's performance. Although ratings are often instructive, they are no substitute for informal feedback, and this should be encouraged throughout the internship.

This evaluation does not establish any public credential or record for the intern, sponsor or staff contact, but it systematically gathers the perceptions of others about the student's work. The extent to which evaluations of the intern will become public and/or used in arriving at a grade must be carefully considered by the staff. We make no recommendations on this matter, but urge only extreme care in protecting the privacy rights of the student, and in being able to justify judgments about credit or grades.

VIII. Administrative Details

A. Scheduling

Confining the internship for all students to two set mornings per week will bring unavoidable inconveniences and potential conflicts with the rest of the program. Provision must be made, therefore, for occasional absences from classwork to attend special internship functions; e.g., the state inspector's visit to a nursing home or the annual meeting of the board of directors. Exceptions must be granted only for solid educational reasons, not just the claim that "they need my help." If students wish to spend more than the allotted morning time at their internships on a regular basis, they will have to use some after-school hours.

A precise date for termination of the internship should be specified in the contract. This should be the same for all interns, and persons in the agencies with whom interns work should be notified far in advance. Interns rendering direct service to children, the elderly, the hospitalized, or others who come to depend upon them should be given special counsel on how to prepare for "termination," for this can be traumatic for both parties. While students may wish to continue into the second semester, this would be impossible within the proposed program structure. Continuation would have to occur on an after-school basis.

B. Transportation

Students should take responsibility for finding their own transportation to and from intern sites, and this might well be a consideration in students' selection of placements. Although there is usually some initial consternation about finding transportation, students are resourceful in using public and private vehicles and in sharing their own. Parental consent forms should clarify the kinds of transportation used. None of the programs with which we are familiar has found transportation to be an insurmountable obstacle.

C. Insurance

Each school system must clarify the insurability of staff and students at internship sites. One major concern is bodily injury to students, and another is the more remote possibility that a student would be held liable for damages claimed by a client of the cooperating agency. Liability is a complicated problem, but developers should not be discouraged. Although there are no conclusive answers, the number of thriving internship programs around the country attests to the fact that appropriate insurance is available, and proper legal arrangements can be made at the local level. In Chapter 11, we discuss in more detail the problem of teacher's liability and parental consent for the program as a whole.

IX. Materials and Resources

A. Model Programs

We recommend keeping in touch with several of the following established internship programs. Ask for copies of their promotional literature. Many of them also have curriculum materials, sponsors' handbooks, evaluation reports, or other helpful literature.

Affirming Our City Together (ACT), c/o Southwest High School, 3510 W. 47th St., Minneapolis, MN 55410. Project designed to build youth participation into all curricular areas in Minneapolis' secondary schools.

Armstrong High School Community Lab, 10635 36th Avenue N., Plymouth, MN 55441. Six hundred seniors engaged in community service internships as part of 12th grade social studies classes.

Community Involvement Program, Office of Research and Development Studies, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 252 Bloor Street West, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. A cooperative project of O.I.S.E. and a growing number of Ontario secondary schools.

Dynamy, 852 Main Street, Worcester, MA 01610. A private, residential program emphasizing internships in the inner city. An affiliate is Dynamy Minnesota, Macalester College, St. Paul, MN 55105. Affiliated with both is Dynamy Outreach, Inc., 57 Cedar Street, Worcester, MA 01609. This dissemination agency has organized and conducted internship programs in the public schools of Worcester, and consults nationwide.

Executive High School Internships of America, 680 Fifth Avenue, New York, NY 10019. Coordinates executive internship programs for extremely able students in a large number of school districts nationwide.

GRASP, Marion Intermediate Education District, 3180 Center St. N.E., Salem, OR 97301. Serves a large number of Marion County secondary schools with an internship and classroom-based program designed to teach state and local government and community service.

Hopkins Eisenhower High School Community Lab for Social Studies, 1001 Highway #7, Hopkins, MN 55343. Internships for seniors during and after school time.

Maine Reach, Chewonki Foundation, Wiscasset, ME 04578. Students disperse to residential internships throughout the state for the month of February.

Project SEAL, Marion, MA 02738. Residential internships with emphasis on occupations associated with the sea.

Senior Semester Program, McKeesport Area Senior High School, McKeesport, PA 15132. Community internship represents entire semester program for participating seniors.

The Switching Yard, Volunteer Bureau of Marin County, Inc, 1022 Sir Francis Drake Blvd., San Anselmo, CA 94960. Coordinates comprehensive volunteer service program for Marin County youth.

Tunbridge in San Francisco, Lone Mountain College, 2800 Turk Boulevard, San Francisco, CA 94118. Students work within a well-developed network of community agencies.

Winston Churchill High School Department of Career Education, Montgomery County Public Schools, Rockville, MD 20850. Internships a major part of a comprehensive career education program.

B. General Resources

Arms, Myron and David Denman, *Touching The World*, Charles Scribner's, 1975. $8.95. A delightful book describing the development, implementation, and demise of an internship program in Philadelphia. Insights into feelings and dilemmas of staff and students.

Ball, Colin and Mog, *Organizing Community Service* and *Resources for Community Service*, Community Service Volunteers, 1975, 20 pp. $.32 apiece. The materials of Community Service Volunteers describe an energetic and widespread community-based learning movement in England. These materials overlap our community internship, political legal process course, and citizen action project. The guidelines and resources indicate that English secondary schools have made major studies on community-based learning. CSV has many other publications, including numerous printed summaries of community projects, and a periodical called *School And Community*.

Center for New Schools, *Learning From the City*, 1977. No price available. Fifteen detailed case studies of community-based learning projects in urban secondary schools.

Cohen, Karen and Robert Sakakeeny, *Evaluation Findings*, Dynamy Outreach, Inc., 1974. $10.00. The most comprehensive evaluation report of internship programs we have seen, related to both residential and public school based programs in Worcester during the 1973-74 academic year.

Coleman, James S. and others, *Youth: Transition to Adulthood*, Univ. of Chicago Press, 1974. $1.95. Comprehensive report of the Panel of Youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee. Includes an insightful chapter by Coleman pinpointing distinctions between "youth" and "adult" cultures.

Conrad, Dan, "Arguments for Educators," *Synergist*, Vol. III, No. 3 (Winter, 1975), p. 9. Outstanding statement of rationale for community-based service learning.

Conrad, Dan and Diane Hedin, *Action Learning in Minnesota*, Center for Youth Development and Research, 1976. $1.00. Descriptions of action learning programs in 30 Minnesota secondary schools, and summary advice from two very experienced people.

•Conrad, Dan and Diane Hedin, "How to Learn from Nonclassroom Experiences." *Synergist*, Vol. IV, No. 3 (Winter, 1976), p. 20. Isolates essential skills, and suggests how they may be developed and applied.

Dynamy-Outreach, Inc., *Guidelines for Field Experience Education Programs*, revised 1976, $10.00. Handbook for teachers and administrators. Details many observations made in this chapter and covers additional ground.

•Howard, Catherine and Timothy Stanton, *Workbook for Students in Community Services*, The Switching Yard, 1975, $3.00. A sequential set of exercises designed for independent or support group use. Exercises call upon students to think and write about key challenges in internship situations.

McAdam, Terry W. and Hal Lyon, "Designing and Operating a Productive Intern Program," *Foundation News*, Vol. XVI, No. 4 (July/August, 1975), p. 43. Written for agencies sponsoring interns. Many insightful suggestions.

Miggins, Edward M., "Interchange: Experimental Learning in the Community," *Clearing House*, Vol. XLVII, No. 6 (February, 1973), p. 362. Briefly summarizes the ideas and procedures of Project Interchange, which coordinates internships and other community-based learning in six public school systems of Cayahuga County, Ohio. Unique in being sponsored by a citizen's organization (called Program for Action by Citizens in Education).

National Child Labor Committee, *Rites of Passage: The Crisis of Youth's Transition from School to Work*, 1976. $2.50. Fifty-page illustrated study drawing heavily on the expertise of business and labor interests. Recommends national policy.

•National Commission on Resources for Youth, *Resources For Youth*, Free. Quarterly newsletter and other publications below. NCRY maintains contact with hundreds of projects nationwide and advocates high standards for youth participation.

•_____, *New Roles For Youth*, Citation Press, 1974. $4.25. Outstanding anthology of case studies of youth in action in the school and community. Not confined to high school organized programs or to internships.

•_____, *What Kids Can Do*, No date, $3.50. Consists of back issues of the NCRY newsletter *Resources For Youth* (see above), and a previous publication called *40 Projects By Groups of Kids*.

•_____, Films and video-tapes for rent on a wide variety of relevant topics. Write for list.

National Student Volunteer Program, *High School Courses With Volunteer Components*, 1974. Free. Descriptions of twelve high school courses that use volunteer activities to complement classroom learning.

National Student Volunteer Program, *High School Student Volunteers*, 1972. Free. A handbook with clear emphasis on the goals of service to the community, rather than benefits accruing to students and school. Good background reading.

Newmann, Fred M., *Education for Citizen Action: Challenge for Secondary Curriculum*, McCutchan, 1975. $9.75.

"N.S.V.P. Forum: High Schools and Action Learning," *Synergist*, Vol. II, No. 2 (Fall 1973), p. 14. Transcript of discussion among seven teachers, administrators, and scholars with significant experience in community-based learning programs. Raises fundamental perspectives and controversies.

Rakoff, Jan, *Tunbridge In Process*, Tunbridge in San Francisco, 1974. $2.00. A free-flowing, learned, and moving essay sketching the history and ideology of the Tunbridge program.

•Indicates materials appropriate for direct use with students.

Scheier, Ivan H., "Need Overlap Analysis: A Technique for Job Development," *Synergist*, Vol. III, No. 3 (Winter 1975), p. 14. The director of the National Information Center on Volunteerism summarizes the NOAH system, intended to assist community agencies in developing volunteer jobs which meet the needs of agency, consumer, and volunteer.

A Student Guide to Learning Through College-Sponsored Work Experience, Working Paper #9 of Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning, Educational Testing Service, 1975. $2.50. Written for college students. Good source of guidelines for learning experiences and of worksheets easily adaptable for secondary school use.

*The Switching Yard, *Internship Seminars*, 1975. $.50. Eight effective activities for internship support groups.

Synergist. Published three times yearly by the National Student Volunteer Program (ACTION), free. Excellent source of project descriptions and ideas, despite its emphasis on postsecondary education. Subscription highly recommended.

Tutoring Project Pack, Community Service Volunteers, 1974. 1 Pound ($1.61). Includes accounts of tutoring projects in English schools, and handbooks for tutors of youth, adult illiterates, and immigrants. Similar to NCRY tutoring materials, but with fresh ideas, and the additional dimension of work with adults.

Voluntary Action Leadership. Joint journal of the National Center for Voluntary Action and the National Information Center on Volunteerism. $8.00/year. (4 issues). Chronicle of volunteerism nationwide. Useful to cooperating agencies as well as to schools. Subscribe to former address and write each agency for lists of other useful publications.

Walkabout Newsletter, Phi Delta Kappa. $2.50/year. Inspired by Maurice Gibbons' article: "Walkabout: Searching for the Right Passage from Childhood and School," (*Phi Delta Kappan*, May, 1974). Follows action learning from the perspective of individualized challenge and transition to adulthood.

Chapter 5
Citizen Action Project

I. Goals

The purpose of the action project is to involve students in cooperative group efforts in public advocacy. Similar to the internship in its concern more for the roles in which students function than for building a specific set of competencies for each student, the action project offers a clinical setting in which to apply skills previously introduced and to develop new ones. Specific competencies for each student cannot be anticipated in advance, for these will depend largely upon the kinds of projects chosen. Compared with the spirit of the internship that emphasizes responsible service and expanding youth involvement in the world of adults, the action project adds the dimension of advocacy, winning public support for causes, influencing public affairs, and attempting to do this through cooperative group effort.

The attempt to influence others to vote in a certain way, to donate money, to attend meetings, to offer volunteer service, to sign statements, to change administrative practice, to participate in a rally or a boycott requires a special assertive role; the capacity to function in such a role is crucial to competent citizenship. To perform successfully in the "advocate" role, youth must face new experiences in conceptualizing long-term strategies responsive to institutions and human nature, and in being held publicly accountable for one's views and actions. The fresh challenges demand, in some cases, learning new skills, in others, building psychological strength to cope with new sources of stress.

We do not equate civic assertion with individualistic leadership and do not, therefore, view every student as a charismatic authority or public personality. Instead, we emphasize advocacy of the "average" citizen in a *group* context, with many differentiated roles as leaders, followers, co-equals. Our rationale for group work extends beyond the familiar political and organizational justification which values collective effort primarily as an instrumental means to achieve social reforms. Persons approach membership in political groups with divergent

motivations, hopes and needs which themselves are often modified during the action process. Unless the member's personal "agenda" is responded to in the group, attachment to the group will diminish, and with it, the person's commitment to action goals. Thus, we encourage action groups not to focus exclusively on efficient accomplishment of their political tasks, but in addition to contribute to the "educational lives" of their members. Within a group, students should have an opportunity to teach and counsel each other, to develop a culture of sharing and caring in the process of trying to make some public impact.

II. Types of Projects

Suppose a group of parents and elementary school teachers raise funds, secure necessary permissions, gather tools and materials, and request help from the citizen action students to construct a schoolyard playground from plans drawn by an architect. The project may be educational and a worthwhile form of community "action," but because it does not involve advocacy, it contributes little to this part of the curriculum. Suppose, on the other hand, that a project begins with high school students noticing a general, though unorganized, concern about inadequate recreational facilities in the neighborhood. The students become involved in organizing neighborhood meetings, researching alternative solutions, interviewing school and city officials, offering ideas for layout and equipment in the model playground, mobilizing materials and labor, securing school board approval for the project. Because of their considerable efforts to organize support, to propose solutions, to persuade people to act, this project represents an attempt to exert influence in public affairs.

In restricting projects to advocacy of some sort, we still leave an enormous range of activities from which to choose, and students across the country have already demonstrated their commitment and ingenuity in diverse advocacy experiences. Here are a few examples.

Students at the St. Paul (Minnesota) Open School investigated air pollution around the school and waged a complicated campaign that resulted in a finding by the local Bureau of Air Pollution Control that three factories had not complied with air-pollution ordinances.

At New City School, also in St. Paul, students produced a video-tape about a public decision to build a swimming pool in a middle-class area. The tape articulated the protest of a neighborhood association in a low-income area who felt their need for the pool was greater. This caused widespread publicity, and led the Parks Department to reconsider its decision. (Eventually the pool was under construction in the middle class neighborhood.)

The Teenage Tenant Training Council in New York City helps tenants interpret the housing code, file complaints with the Housing Authority, and build self-reliant local organizations.

A group of students from the Maine Reach program worked to support a bill requiring returnable beverage containers throughout the state. They focused on building grass roots support in the home districts of three carefully-chosen senators. Despite their work in generating much public support, the bill was defeated in the Senate by one vote. A year later the bill became law through a public referendum supported by 58% of the voters.

Students have also been involved in electoral campaigns, in creating youth services such as hot-lines or student unions, in supporting the struggles of other groups such as migrant workers. We cannot represent here all the interesting advocacy efforts that have come to our attention, but we do wish to convey a sense of the variety of opportunities for youth.

We find options in problem areas: consumer protection, students' rights in school, housing, recreational facilities, police and juvenile justice, environment, social services (drug rehabilitation, general counseling), employment, elections. We find options in the activities pursued: research and fact-finding, broad-based publicity and consciousness raising; one-to-one attempts at persuasion with constituents, public officials, people of power in allied and adversarial groups. Student roles might be characterized primarily as self-interested (students working for due process in their own school), as altruistic (student support of a boycott of migrant workers), as "impartial community planners" (working for alternatives to automobile transportation). Projects can also vary in their primary "targets" of persuasion: an administrative official such as school principal or city health officer, an official body or group such as a natural resource board or an affirmative action commission, an unorganized constituency of consumers or residents in a neighborhood, "opinion leaders" in special interest groups, churches, or social organizations. The enormous potential pool of projects should not, however, obscure two main criteria for project selection: action projects should place students in the role of advocating, persuading, trying to win support on a public issue, and they should be structured so that students must work in groups to achieve action goals.*

III. Project Selection and Student Grouping

Early during the first semester students should be introduced to the action project, and special time set aside for the program community as a whole to discuss possible areas for involvement. By the beginning of second semester, students should be divided into their action groups, and each group should have a rough idea of the type of issue it wants to attack and the kinds of agencies and constituencies with which it will

*The problem of handling projects considered by some to be too controversial, too partisan, too militant, or unethical is discussed in Chapter 11.

deal. Specific action goals and strategies, however, should be planned during the time allotted, second semester, for the projects.

Selecting project areas and forming student groups will be complicated; there is no simple, quick procedure. Admittedly, there will be constraints in this program not to be imposed on the "average" adult citizen. Because of the educational rationale behind participation, staff should encourage students to work in groups of about six or eight members, and should also try to disperse student talent relatively equally throughout the groups. Because of scarce staff resources, staff may also want to limit the number of action areas to, say, two general topics (e.g., juvenile justice and environment), which might make it easier for staff to be of assistance to students than if they had to monitor projects in six different areas. Finally, it may be necessary to submit proposed projects to review by an advisory committee of students, staff, and parents who, once persuaded of the projects' value, would defend students' right to participate in highly controversial areas. Constraints of this sort do stand as qualifiers to any expectation that project selection and student grouping will be strictly a matter of free individual choice.

Early in the program, it must be emphasized that project selection is approached not simply as a separate decision for each individual student, but more as a set of choices for the program community as a whole. While the obvious question will be, "What project and people do I most want to work with?" another question must be asked, "What set of projects and groups of people would be most beneficial to everyone in the program?" As students find ideas for projects and proposed ways of grouping, these should be presented and discussed in large groups throughout the first semester, but the tendency to make final commitments to one area or with one group should be discouraged. Ideally, by the end of the semester, there would be complete consensus among all staff and students on projects and groups. Since this is unlikely, students will have to accept compromise and possible second choice assignments to project groups. In the struggle to balance individual interests with limited group resources, however, no person should be compelled to participate in an action project against his or her wishes.

According to this procedure, project topics at the end of first semester will be rather vague, e.g., "influence the policy to be less of a hassle to runaways," or "influence retailers to pay more attention to consumer rights." The first two weeks of the second semester should concentrate on detailed fact-finding and research in the community which translates general topics into manageable, justifiable action projects.

Ideas for specific goals, along with cooperative support, may come from other community groups, and a well-chosen affiliate can provide

effective structure, counsel, and inspiration. Examples of possible affiliates are political parties, public interest law firms, civil rights groups, consumer organizations or other interest groups. During the first semester students should be exposed to these in the political-legal process course. Often affiliates will be carrying out larger projects of which the student effort might become a part. We urge that precautions be taken to insure that the students maintain their identity as a student action group and do not become absorbed as separate individuals in the affiliate's program. Maintenance of the student action group's identity is critical to its educational value within the overall program.

In finalizing goals for the action group, students should be able to answer a number of questions: (1) What precisely do we intend to accomplish in the twelve week period? That is, what would we have to observe in the behavior of which people or which institutions to determine how successful we are? For example, would it be sufficient to persuade a newspaper to run a series of editorials in favor of our position on an issue? Would it suffice if we convinced a local council representative to introduce an ordinance and to hold public hearings? Do we aim to have a company repair its buildings so they are all up to code requirements? Goals should be phrased specifically, and in measurable terms. (2) Suppose our major goals are not achieved, what alternative outcomes would we accept as criteria for success or failure? (3) Can we justify the goals and the tactics we propose to achieve them –in ethical terms and according to solid factual evidence? (4) What resources do we need to achieve the goals and how are we likely to obtain them? Students should make an inventory of physical and financial needs, as well as of their own skills. (5) What procedures will our group use to alter the major goals if, as a result of our experience, this seems required? In conceptualizing the project, students should also devise a governance plan or decision-making structure for their action group. Answering these questions will involve considerable study, discussion, consultation with staff.

IV. Activities

In addition to unique tasks entailed by different projects, we suggest that students be involved in common project-related activities: position papers, skill clinics, project counseling, and informal sharing.

Position Papers. Early in the life of the project, each group should prepare a position statement describing its goals and strategies and justifying them as completely as possible. The paper should serve as the group's official "brief" that could be distributed in whole or part to anyone who might inquire about the group's activity. All members of the group should contribute in some way to the paper. Drafts of all the papers should be discussed within the program community at large, and then the papers should be revised in response to feedback.

Skill Clinics. Students should consider what new technical skills need to be learned to carry out their work and who within the group should master them. Possible skills would include political canvassing, fundraising, testifying at a public meeting, parliamentary procedure, using newspaper files, poster-making, holding a press conference, bargaining. There should be a well-stocked library of handbooks and action guides, and teachers should plan to hold clinics in those skills required by several groups. The clinics might vary from half an hour to a three-hour course; they might include role-play interviews and simulations, and some could be run by experts in the community (e.g., an attorney specializing in consumer law, a public opinion pollster, a professional fund-raiser, a community organizer). Experienced activists and people in touch with the group's targets of advocacy should be consulted on tactical matters, and the special skill development of the clinics should not be academic diversions from project business, but practical instruction clearly required for the project work.

Project Counseling Sessions. Serious involvement in civic action brings special sources of stress, anxiety, frustration to youth and adults alike. The goal of project counseling sessions is to recognize these, to help students clarify their concerns explicitly, and to lend sympathetic support so that emotional issues do not immobilize students or make their actions counterproductive. We suggest that students meet in groups of about fifteen, plus a staff member, once a week for about an hour and a half to deal with emotional, attitudinal matters that affect their work. To give students a break from their action group and to generate fresh ideas, we recommend that each counseling group have members from several projects. The following issues may help to illustrate sources of frustration and/or types of dilemmas likely to arise:

Scope of Action. In setting project goals, it will become apparent that if one wishes to solve the whole problem (e.g., poverty or distribution of wealth), the complexities are enormous and impossible to handle. On the other hand, if one limits the project to an easily "manageable goal" (e.g., proposing free bus passes for the elderly), there will be lingering doubts about the significance of the action.

Commitment and Openness. If students consistently doubt the value of their action, they will accomplish nothing—they must be committed enough to charge ahead in spite of doubt. On the other hand, if their commitment is blind, unreceptive to criticism, resistant to all proposed changes in plans, their action will be ineffective.

Persons. Pursuit of a cause can involve distressing interpersonal conflict with peers and family, and in some cases may require "hurting" others (e.g., lobbying against a public project which, if discontinued, would cost people their jobs; trying to reduce the power or replace an incompetent individual). To the extent that students wish to avoid creating hassles for others or receiving disapproval from them, it will be

impossible to pursue any cause. On the other hand, the cause alone cannot be the ultimate value—its pursuit must honor the principle of respect for persons. Interpersonal issues will also arise among action group members, especially on problems related to leadership and individual differences in competence.

Integrity. This is the problem of selling-out or compromising—how much can we give in or concede? When it becomes clear that we cannot have our way, is it worth taking half a loaf instead of no bread at all?

Sense of Injustice. Some events will provoke justifiable rage, cynicism, despair. Students may feel ignored, co-opted, "taken." Where can one find the will to act within an imperfect system? Should one even search for that commitment? This is perhaps the ultimate question.

We have no structured curriculum for dealing with issues of this sort. Their resolution can be found only in some combination of philosophical insight and psychological strength which, we admit, teachers and peers may not know how to give in a systematic, formal fashion. We believe, however, that a conscious, deliberate effort should be made to recognize and help students cope with such issues. Students may not articulate such dilemmas directly, but concentrate more on concrete events and conflicts: "Ken made me so made yesterday; I just didn't have the energy to write that article for the paper." Staff may have to draw out some of the issues lying behind mundane daily problems of collective cooperation.

During the first semester, the communications course would presumably have built trust among students and skills of listening and responding to each other. The political-legal process course would have introduced them to realities of the "system," thereby reducing some of the shock of political-social consciousness. The project counseling sessions can build on these foundations. Students might share individual problems, counseling each other in small groups. The staff might assign reading illustrating, e.g., through autobiographical case studies, how other activists seem to have handled similar problems. Provocative quotes, proverbs, "pearls of wisdom," on dilemmas of human existence could be presented and discussed. Visiting experienced activists could join the counseling groups to share "war stories," general views and specific advice. The issues explored may overlap with the action in literature course, but the project counseling sessions will be unique in beginning and ending with the students' problems.

Informal Sharing. It may be a contradiction to plan for informal sharing, but time should be allotted for students from all projects to share in a low-keyed, often light and humorous, nonacademic way. There might be a time before or after community meetings with

refreshments served. Students might do improvisations on "characters we've met" or "our troubles." At times, students might tag along with or visit other project groups.

V. Coordination-Administration

Scheduling these activities in the midst of the action project, along with the action in literature and public message courses will be difficult. Action work cannot be confined to morning hours. Students will probably have to attend evening functions and special meetings in the afternoons. While certain times must be preserved as sacred, e.g., the action in literature course, community meeting, and time to take a course outside of the citizenship curriculum (e.g., chemistry), the rest of the program could be scheduled on a weekly basis. On the Thursday of each week a committee of staff and students from each action group could meet to plan how the following week might best be organized to fit the needs of the action groups. The schedule could be published on Friday. This kind of flexibility can work only if each week's schedule is firmly maintained.

It will be advisable to have parents sign specific "riders" to the general parental consent forms for student participation in the program. The riders should explain in more detail the nature of the student's activities in the community during the action project. There should be a sign-out procedure so that the staff will be aware of student whereabouts at all times.

Each action group should have one staff member as a permanent advisor. The staff member will function in three main roles. As a *group resource person,* the teacher will offer ideas for projects, strategies, specific personal contacts in the community, bibliographical suggestions, criticism on positions, tactics, intragroup procedure, and skill clinics either through arrangement or teaching. As an *individual educational advisor,* the staff person will try to insure that all individuals benefit educationally from their action experience. It may be necessary to help individuals stand up against being railroaded by or left out by their group, to help them choose activities of benefit to personal growth, to counsel them in times of stress, to reward and praise them. Ultimately, of course, the group project should enhance individual competencies, and it is the staff person's responsibility to help the group work serve that end for each student. Finally, as *monitor* of the group, the staff person must keep track of the students' activities in the community, so that questions from parents, administrators, etc., can be answered. Staff should become acquainted with adults in the various agencies with whom students have sustained contact. A form explaining the program goals, guidelines for student safety, and requesting information on their relationship with the students might be distributed to the "nonschool" people whom students frequently

encounter. Staff should obviously meet with each other to discuss progress and problems in the various projects.

VI. Evaluation

Each action project should develop a "file" of information about the work of the group as a whole and individuals within it. The file is not for public record, but for educational benefits. For example, each group should anticipate the kind of evidence they would want in order to demonstrate to themselves progress and productivity. They should be encouraged to think in terms other than complete "victory" in the action task (winning an election, changing an ordinance). Discrete tasks can be emphasized—obtaining ten critical endorsements, increasing favorable attitudes on an opinion poll by 5 percent, leafletting at 10 factories, complete canvassing of two precincts. In addition, qualitative judgments should be recorded: How well did the group involve all members? How productively did they resolve conflicts and make decisions? How well did they preserve spirit and momentum? Evidence on such matters can be gathered through discussion, scaled questionnaire items, by testimony from staff, affiliates or other observers of the group.

Individuals should gather information on their contribution to the group, as well as particular individual competencies. Early in the project, staff could confer with each student about personal learning goals, and a contract can be drawn up. To describe contributions to the group, members can assess the individual's initiative, helpfulness to others, standards of workmanship, dependability, and incidental contributions to group life. Individual learning goals might include *technical skills* like learning how to read an agency budget, to write political advertisements, *attitudinal goals* such as more confidence in talking with adults or becoming more tolerant of differences within the group, and *idiosyncratic social knowledge* such as understanding how the banks work. Evidence of student progress on such items can also be gathered through a combination of questionnaire items and small group discussion. Group members, staff, community contacts, and the student would contribute input on the question of individual progress.

So as to provide maximum educational benefits, evaluation data should be collected not only at the end of the project, but at least once before then, perhaps halfway into it. The staff member should help design group and individual evaluation schemes and should collate and summarize the data in a format accessible to group members. Staff will also have to determine criteria and fair methods for arriving at grades and credits (see Chapter 10).

VII. Reading and Writing

In the formative stages of the project all group members should be expected to do significant reading in preparation for the position

paper. This will include agency reports, news articles, ideological tracts, statutes, court opinions, budgets, national studies on certain policies, etc. If possible, reading done by each student should be consistent with his or her personal educational goals for the course.

Similarly, most projects will involve a variety of writing, especially the group position paper, but also minutes of meetings, letters to editors, officials and various community contacts, news releases, brochures, formal resolutions and speeches, a group journal. Writing assignments should also be divided as much as possible to correspond with individual educational goals. Through journals or other means, a record should be kept of the reading and writing activities of each student.

VIII. Individuation

While primary attention will be given to group productivity, the reason for this is ultimately the education of individuals, and so it is vital that the group see itself as trying to fulfill individual educational goals as well as completion of the group task. At the risk of sacrificing some time and even of making mistakes, all members of the group should be given a chance to try different kinds of work, develop new skills. The staff member will have to work closely with individuals in setting their educational goals, and intervene as gently as possible in the group discussions to see that these are not forgotten. If serious conflicts develop between pursuing the group cause efficiently and helping members learn new things, the group as a whole should face that issue explicitly and work out its own solution.

IX. Integration with Other Components

The action project should grow out of issues raised in the internship and political-legal process course. It should rely heavily on skills developed in the communication course and should generate material for the public message. Problems discussed in the action and literature course at a general level should be applied to concrete personal situations encountered in the action project.

X. Materials and Resources

A. Ideas for Youth Advocacy Projects

Aronstein, Lawrence W. and Edward G. Olsen, *Action Learning*. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1974. $2.50. Discusses student community service and provides details of the extensive influence of a SUNY Buffalo group on waste recycling in Buffalo.

Ball, Colin and Mog, *Organizing Community Service and Resources for Community Service*. See Chapter 4 bibliography.

Center for New Schools, *Learning From The City*. See Chapter 4 bibliography.

Citizenship Education Clearing House, *Citizenship Education: In the Classroom and Out*, 1976. $5.00. Covers ground similar to this chapter. Especially helpful suggestions for students evaluating their own projects.

Conrad, Dan and Diane Hedin, *Action Learning in Minnesota*. See Chapter 4 bibliography.

*Conservation and Pollution Project Pack. Community Service Volunteers, 1972. $.97. Accounts of many different projects by English secondary school students in environmental action.

Maine Reach. See Chapter 4 bibliography. Involved with adolescents in advocacy projects. Case studies and consultation available on a small scale.

National Commission on Resources for Youth. See Chapter 4 bibliography.

*Project Adventure. From $.30-$.60/booklet. Although this project, with origins in the Outward Bound program, does not specifically emphasize advocacy projects, their curriculum materials and "how to" booklets in community-based learning are extremely creative and insightful.

*St. Paul Open School, *Sense of Smell*, 1974. $.50. A public message prepared by students presents details of the air pollution project. Students there are involved in a variety of action work, and additional publications are available.

**Student Advocate*. Periodical of the Office of Student Activities, National Association of Secondary School Principals. $10.00 for nine issues. Ideas for student advocacy within school systems.

**Synergist*. See Chapter 4 bibliography.

B. Social Action Handbooks

*Alinsky, Saul D., *Reveille For Radicals*, Vintage, 1946; revised 1969. $1.65. By the paramount activist and organizer of people's movements in the 20th century U.S., a clear statement of radical thought and practical methodology.

*_____, *Rules For Radicals: A Practical Primer for Realistic Radicals*, Random House, 1971. $1.95. Fundamental instructions for adult political organizers. Should help high school students put their work in perspective.

**Citizen Action in Education*, Newsletter of the Institute for Responsive Education, free. Guidelines, case studies, and ideas for citizen influence in the field of education.

*Hessel, Dieter T., *A Social Action Primer*, Westminster Press, 1972. $2.95. A general introduction to social action by a theologian. Early chapters discuss philosophy of social action in a style accessible to many high school students. Middle chapters on strategy and tactics.

*Huenefeld, John, *The Community Activist's Handbook*, Beacon, 1970. $6.00. A guide for citizen leaders, oriented toward "political organization" projects and the "average American community."

*Kahn, Si, *How People Get Power*, McGraw-Hill, 1970. $2.45. Concise and thorough manual for organizers of "oppressed communities." Drawn largely from the author's experience as an organizer in the rural South.

*Kitzmiller, William M. and Richard Ottinger, *Citizen Action: Vital Force for Change*, Center for a Voluntary Society, 1971. $.95. A study of the adult citizen action movement in the United States focusing on interesting case studies of five prominent organizations, and their campaigns.

*LaFollette, Douglas and Peter Anderson, *Wisconsin Survival Handbook*. Wisconsin's Environmental Decade, 1971. $.95. A clear and well-organized collection of resources for the environmental activist compiled by Wisconsin's present Secretary of State.

*Marian, Bert, David Rosen and David Osborne, *How To Research the Power Structure of your Secondary School System*. See Chapter 2 bibliography.

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*Indicates materials appropriate for direct use with students.

*Murphy, William T., Jr. and Edward Schnier, *Vote Power: How To Work for the Person You Want Elected*, Doubleday, 1974. $1.95. General electoral politics handbook.

*Nader, Ralph and Donald Ross, *Action For A Change*, Grossman Publishers, 1971. $1.35. Directed to college students organizing public-interest research groups, but may be useful to secondary students.

*O.M. Collective, *The Organizer's Manual*, Bantam, 1970. $1.25. A wide-ranging handbook reflecting the late 60's era of student protest. Lengthy section discusses different strategies for use with different constituencies. Extensive bibliography.

*Pezzuti, Thomas A., *You Can Fight City Hall And Win*, Sherbourne Press, 1974. $4.95. Combination expose of government mismanagement and manual for those organizing to correct it. Chapters on referendum and recall processes.

*Postman, Neil and Charles Weingartner, *The Soft Revolution*, Dell, 1971. $.95. Written for students and focusing on school reform it paints the middle ground between violence and compliance in student activism. Straightforward and intelligent guidance for young activists.

*Prentice, Lloyd, *Words, Pictures, Media: Communication in Educational Politics*. Institute for Responsive Education, 1976. $4.00. Comprehensive guide to political communication, emphasizing educational issues.

*Ross, Donald K., *A Public Citizen's Action Manual*, Grossman Publishers, 1973. $1.95. Basic Nader manual emphasizing consumer, health care, tax reform, and government responsiveness, issues.

*Simon, Paul, *You Want To Change The World? So Change It!* See Chapter 2 bibliography.

*Simpson, Dick, *Winning Elections: A Handbook in Participatory Politics*, Swallow Press, 1976. $3.95. Specific suggestions, based on case studies of the author's work in Chicago politics.

*Simpson, Dick and George Beame, *Strategies For Change: How To Make the American Political Dream Work*. See Chapter 2 bibliography.

*Smith, Lee L., *Community Action: Hot To Get It Successfully*, Center for Information on America, 1965. $.30. A twelve-page general guide with good suggestions.

*Strauss, Bert and Mary E. Stowe, *How To Get Things Changed*, Doubleday and Co., 1974. $8.95. Describes the theories and activities of an organization in Loudoun County, Virginia, which acts as a consultant to a large number of local citizen action groups and projects.

C. Guides to Particular Skills

Much guidance in technical matters will be found in works listed above, but the following items give more systematic attention to specific skills. Materials on action research techniques are listed in the bibliography for Chapter 2.

*Herzberg, Donald G. and J.W. Peltason, *A Student Guide To Campaign Politics*, McGraw Hill, 1970. $1.95. Practical guide for students, covering most aspects of participation in political campaigns — including how to organize a coffee party, working on a sound truck, working at polls.

*Institute for Political/Legal Education, *A Guide to Lobbying*, 1975. $1.00. Thin, but a good basis for discussion.

*_____, *Political Campaign Techniques*, 1975. $.75. Short treatments of such topics as press relations, campaign literature receptions, and telephone campaigns.

**Simplified Parliamentary Procedure*, League of Women Voters, 1971. $.15. A twelve-page pocket-size pamphlet.

This, Leslie E., *The Small Meeting Planner*, Gulf Publishing, 1972. $8.95. Comprehensive treatment. Includes sections on logistics, physical settings, general dynamics,

leadership methods, discussion techniques, and evaluation. Appropriate for many students, but especially valuable for teachers.

*Wood, Pamela, *You And Aunt Arie: A Guide to Cultural Journalism Based on Foxfire and its Descendants in the U.S. and Abroad*, Institutional Development and Economic Affairs Service, Inc., 1975. $5.80. An excellent chapter on interviewing the "Foxfire" way (pp. 20-37).

D. Resources on Specific Public Issues

Much of the information necessary for productive student projects will be unique to particular communities in particular situations, and will have to be gathered from local sources. Relevant background designed for a more general audience is also important, and can be found through the following channels.

*1. Book Series on Social Problems. Several publishers offer series for secondary school students. The series usually aim at increasing student awareness by presenting facts and explaining opposing viewpoints. While they do not generally offer specific guidance for action projects, the materials are useful in helping students formulate justifications for the positions they take. Examples are listed in the bibliography for Chapter 2. In addition, special reference services are available. For example, *The Social Issues Resources Series*, (see Appendix) with 16 volumes on topics such as pollution, population, drugs, energy, food, work, money, privacy, family, crime, correction. Each volume has dozens of articles, and annual supplements. Volumes vary from $30.00 to $40.00, discounts for purchases of volume sets.

2. Publications of citizen action organizations and special interest groups often contain important material not available through the mass media or academic scholarship. A citizen action curriculum program should be on the mailing list and request publications from organizations such as the following. Common Cause is the largest national "citizens" lobby. The Public Citizen keeps track of the detailed studies by Ralph Nader groups and the Public Interest Research Groups (PIRG's) that have been organized in many states. This list in no way exhausts all citizen action groups that might be helpful, but provides a foundation for a library of citizen action materials, many of which might be incorporated into a school curriculum. The groups vary considerably in the resources they offer.

The American Civil Liberties Union Foundation
156 Fifth Avenue
New York, NY 10010

Appalachian Research and Defense Fund
1116-B Kanawha Blvd., E.
Charleston, WV 25301

Center for Educational Reform
2119 S Street, NW
Washington, D.C. 20008

Center for Law and Social Policy
1751 N Street, NW
Washington, D.C. 20036

The Center For Law in the Public Interest
P.O. Box 24367
Los Angeles, CA 90024

Center for Public Representation
520 University Avenue
Madison, WI 53703

Center for Science in the Public Interest
1779 Church Street, NW
Washington, D.C. 20036

Center for the Study of Responsive Law
P.O. Box 19367
Washington, D.C. 20013

Citizen Action Group
2000 P Street, NW
Washington, D.C. 20036

Citizens Advocate Center
211 Connecticut Avenue
Washington, D.C. 20006

Citizens Communication Center
1816 Jefferson Place, NW
Washington, D.C. 20036

Corporate Information Center
475 Riverside Drive
New York, NY 10027

Council on Economic Priorities
456 Greenwich Street
New York, NY 10013

Environmental Action
1345 Connecticut Avenue
Washington, D.C. 20036

Environmental Defense Fund
162 Old Town Road
East Setauket, LI, NY 11733

Institute for Public Interest Representation
Georgetown Law Center
506 E. Street
Washington, D.C. 20001

Institute for Responsive Education
704 Commonwealth Avenue
Boston, MA 02215

Law Students Civil Rights Research Council
156 Fifth Avenue
New York, NY 10010

Lawyers Committee for Civil Rights Under Law
733 15th Street, NW
Washington, D.C. 20005

League of Women Voters Education Fund
1730 M Street, NW
Washington, D.C. 20036

Louisiana Center for the Public Interest
1114 1/2 Royal Street
New Orleans, LA 70116

Mexican American Legal Defense and Education Fund
145 Ninth Street
San Francisco, CA 94103

Migrant Services Foundation
395 N.W. First Street
Miami, FL 33128

N.A.A.C.P. Legal Defense and Educational Fund
10 Columbus Circle
New York, NY 10019

National Committee for Citizens in Education
Suite 410, Wilde Lake Village Green
Columbia, MD 21044

National Prison Law Project
1424 16th Street, NW-Suite 404
Washington, D.C. 20036

National Urban League
55 E. 52nd Street
New York, NY 10022

National Wildlife Federation
1412 16th Street, NW
Washington, D.C. 20036

Native American Rights Fund
1506 Broadway
Boulder, CO 80302

Natural Resources Defense Council, Inc.
1710 N Street, NW
Washington, D.C. 20036
and
15 W. 44th Street
New York, NY 10036

Project on Corporate Responsibility
1525 18th Street, NW
Washington, D.C. 20036

Public Citizen
1346 Connecticut Avenue, NW
Washington, D.C. 20036

Retired Professional Action Group
2000 P Street, NW
Washington, D.C. 20036

Scientists' Institute for Public Information
30 East 68th Street
New York, NY 10021

Sierra Club
1050 Mills Tower
San Francisco, CA 94104

Southern Conference Educational Fund
3210 W. Broadway
Louisville, KY 40211

Tax Analysis and Advocates
732 17th Street, NW
Washington, D.C. 20006

Urban Planning Aid, Inc.
639 Massachusetts Avenue
Cambridge, MA 02139

Chapter 6
Action in Literature Course

I. Goals

During the second semester, in their action projects and public messages, students will be heavily involved in practical, concrete matters trying to produce results in the "real world." The effective exercise of influence requires concentration not only on tactics and details, but also stepping back, periodically withdrawing from obvious concerns; exclusive preoccupation with one's own immediate tasks can lead to self-deception and counter-productive action. To guard against this, we suggest reserving a special time to put clinical work in perspective and using this to examine the experience and thoughts of others somewhat removed from our daily challenges. This will help to develop the sixth general program competence, a central goal in this course: "to discuss concrete personal experiences of self and others in ways that contribute to resolution of personal dilemmas encountered in civic action and that relate these experiences to more general human issues."

There are a number of ways to step back, and to interpret concrete events through abstract frameworks. Religious practices, transcendental meditation, seminars in philosophy, psychotherapy or a mountain climb can all lend some "perspective." Here we turn to great writers who, in a variety of literature through the ages, have helped us feel and think about the human condition. By learning to read some of that literature, students will be stimulated to view their immediate experience in a broader context.

Because of this deliberately general objective, and our desire to build on diverse teacher interests, the literature we have in mind is broadly conceived. The intent is to introduce students to reading about social affairs that go beyond the conventional journalistic narrative and editorializing of the mass media, to read fiction, verse, drama, biography, and nonfiction social analysis which speak to multiple dimensions in the human quest for social justice. On the assumption that great writers put us in touch with visions and emotions frequently unacknowledged in our common activities, we turn to literature for inspiration and meaning.

The teacher's role during the program's second semester encourages a course of this sort. In the action project and public message, the teacher functions as a resource person, a facilitator helping students to define their action problems and public messages, plan appropriate strategies, learn technical skills, and work productively in groups. In short, the teacher spends much of the time helping students with activities they initiate. If placed exclusively in the position of facilitating the needs of others to execute tasks of their own choosing, teachers can become alienated from their own academic expertise and possibly lose a sense of professional identity with their field. Just as students need time during this semester to step back reflectively from the hustle, teachers also need a chance to pursue topics in intellectual depth. Thus, one purpose of the course is to encourage teachers to share their substantive background and knowledge of a literature in order to bring perspective to students' immediate action problems. Students who are required to exercise so much initiative during the second semester will probably welcome the shift of initiative to the teacher and the teacher's more apparent exercise of intellectual leadership.

II. Themes and Illustrative Literature

Since a multitude of writings would be appropriate, and since the purpose is to encourage teachers to build on their own strengths, we do not offer a firm set of "masterpieces," nor a detailed course structure. We suggest that the course meet about 3 hours per week. Reading on the quest for social justice could be organized into four broad themes: human diversity, injustice and social pathology, blueprints for society, personal responses to universal dilemmas. To assure that students encounter diverse modes of expression, we also suggest that literature itself be represented in five forms: fiction (novels, short stories), verse, drama, biography-autobiography, and nonfiction social analysis. The last category is intended for literature that apparently falls outside of the previous four, but which is recognized, nevertheless, as distinguished writing. (A teacher may wish to include, for example, Eldridge Cleaver's *Soul on Ice*, Lincoln's Gettysburg address, or Thoreau's essay on civil disobedience.) One might try to find literature in each of the five forms for each of the four general themes, but the course should be guided more by the quality of literature dealing with the overriding objective than by equal representation among forms.

A. Human Diversity

One way to gain a broader perspective is to learn of one's uniqueness in relation to others. In being exposed to cultural and individual diversity, it becomes possible to compare one's condition, and to see

that one's present reality may not be the only possible one. To read of other humans thinking, feeling, living in ways different from oneself may be threatening at times, inspiring at others, but either reaction offers important opportunities for self-reflection. To the extent that literature makes it possible for students to identify with those of a different age, sex, race, religion, historical period, life style, etc., it presents new "alternatives" for thinking about their own present problems. To gain a sense of the scope of human diversity, it would be helpful to include writing that extends across cultures, through time and that captures individual differences within cultural-historical boundaries.

Examples of literature which highlight this theme:

Fiction

Camus, Albert, *The Stranger*, Random House, 1954. $1.65.
Joyce, James, *Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*, Viking Press, 1964. $1.65.
Katz, Naomi and Nancy Milton (Eds.), *Fragment From A Lost Diary and Other Stories: Women of Asia, Africa, and Latin America*, Beacon Press 1975. $3.95.
Markandaya, Kamala, *Nectar In A Sieve*, New American Library, no date. $1.25.
Plath, Sylvia, *The Bell Jar*, Bantam, 1975. $1.75.

Poetry

Adoff, Arnold (Ed.), *I Am The Darker Brother: An Anthology of Modern Poems by Black Americans*, Collier Macmillan, 1970. $1.25.
McLuhan, T.C. *Touch The Earth: A Self-Portrait of Indian Existence*, Pocket Books, 1972. $2.95.
Rothenberg, Jerome and George Quasha (Eds.), *America A Prophecy*, Vintage, 1974. $3.95.

Drama

Hansberry, Lorraine, *Raisin In The Sun*, New American Library, 1961. $.95.
Wilder, Thornton N., *Our Town*, Harper and Row, 1968. $.65.

Biography-Autobiography

Neihardt, John C., *Black Elk Speaks*, Pocket Books, 1972. $1.75.
Terkel, Studs, *Working*, Avon, 1975. $2.25.

Non-Fiction Social Analysis

Castaneda, Carlos, *Journey to Ixtlan*, Pocket Books, 1974. $1.50.
Freuchen, Peter, *Book of the Eskimos*, Fawcett World, 1973. $1.50.

B. Injustice and Social Pathology

A rich body of literature portrays the plight of victims—often invisible to the community at large—and other social phenomena considered negative (e.g., hypocrisy, competitive materialism, peer conformity, or centralized bureaucracy). Here we refer to the creative exposure of shortcomings, wrongs, "social pathology," human "fallibility." This might be seen as "consciousness raising" literature about the struggle of oppressed groups (the poor, racial minorities, women, the mentally ill), the effects of broad movements and values (technological development, military aggression, materialism), or

adverse events characterized less easily as systemic trends (an innocent person convicted on circumstantial evidence). By introducing students to issues throughout history and across cultures, writings on these matters will offer parallels and distinctions to the students' experiences. The aim is not to build a catalogue of social atrocities or a general indictment of human values, for this would lead not to productive reflection, but to depression, despair, fantasies for escape. The literature we select should speak to the wide variety of reactions—hope as well as despair, humor as well as seriousness, courage along with cowardice—through which humans cope with adversity.

Examples of literature which highlight this theme:

Fiction

Dickens, Charles, *Bleak House*, New American Library, 1964. $1.95.
Ellison, Ralph, *Invisible Man*, Random House, 1951. $1.95.
Steinbeck, John, *Grapes of Wrath*, Bantam, 1970. $1.95.

Poetry

Hughes, Langston, *Selected Poems*, Random House, no date. $2.25.
Masters, Edgar L., *Spoon River Anthology*, Macmillan, 1968. $1.95.

Drama

Durrenmatt, Friedrich, *The Visit*, Grove Press, 1962. $2.95.
Lawrence, Jerome and Robert E. Lee, *Inherit The Wind*, Bantam, 1969. $.75.
Miller, Arthur, *The Crucible*, Viking Press, 1953. $1.35.

Biography-Autobiography

Frank, Anne, *Anne Frank: Diary of a Young Girl*, Washington Square Press, 1972. $1.50.
Wright, Richard, *Black Boy*, Harper and Row, no date. $1.25.

Non-Fiction Social Analysis

Brown, Claude, *Manchild In The Promised Land*, New American Library, 1971. $1.50.
Brown, Dee, *Bury My Heart At Wounded Knee: An Indian History of the American West*, Bantam, 1972. $1.95.
Hardwick, Elizabeth, *Seduction and Betrayal*, Random House, 1975. $2.45.

C. Blueprints for Social Organization

A natural response to injustice or social pathology is to ask, "How might society be organized to avoid practices or values that seem objectionable?" Adolescents are known for an idealistic passion to make the world a more humane place. Through literature they can examine general visions and specific plans to ameliorate social ills. Utopian writing and analytical writing on the nature of man and government offer provocative, diverse conceptions of community and society. In considering the desirability and possibility of alternative schemes for human organization, students can expand the perspective through which they approach contemporary causes.

Examples of literature that highlight this theme:

Fiction

Huxley, Aldous, *Brave New World*, Harper Row, 1969. $1.25.
Rand, Ayn, *The Fountainhead*, New American Library, no date. $1.95.
Skinner, B. F., *Walden II*, Macmillan, 1969. $2.50.

Poetry

Whitman, Walt, *Leaves of Grass*, New American Library, 1971. $1.25.

Drama

Lawrence, Jerome and Robert E. Lee, *The Night Thoreau Spent In Jail*, Bantam, 1972. $.95.
MacLeish, Archibald, *J.B.*, Houghton-Mifflin, no date. $2.65.

Non-Fiction Social Analysis

Machiavelli, Niccolo, *The Prince*, Airmont, no date. $.60.
Marx, Karl and Frederick Engels, *The Communist Manifesto*, Monthly Review Press, 1968. $2.25.
Plato, *Republic*, Random House, no date. $1.95.
Thoreau, Henry D., *Walden*, Bantam, no date. $1.25.
Toffler, Alvin, *Future Shock*, Bantam, 1971. $1.95.

D. Personal Responses to Universal Dilemmas

This last theme is, in a sense, broadest of all, and may be embedded in each of the first three. The intent here is to study people who have tried to solve social problems, to effect change, to work toward justice, and to examine how they have coped with selected universal dilemmas. The dilemmas may be construed in numerous ways, but some of the more familiar are conflicts among personal loyalties (brother against brother), means versus ends, short term versus long-term goals, or conflicts among such values as freedom versus security, majority rule versus minority rights, private property versus public welfare. Hopefully we can find in literature stories and symbolic commentary on the life of activists, not necessarily restricted to the charismatic or heroic leader, but average citizens trying to have some impact, to participate meaningfully in their communities. To the extent that students may find their own frustrations and joy represented in the experience of others, they may find general comfort and possibly specific strategies or philosophies to help them.

Examples of literature that highlight this theme:

Fiction

Kesey, Ken, *Sometimes A Great Notion*, Bantam, 1971. $1.50.
Kazantzakis, Nikas, *Zorba The Greek*, Simon and Schuster, no date. $2.95.
Solzhenitsyn, Alexander, *One Day in the Life of Ivan Denisovich*, Bantam, 1970. $1.25.
Vonnegut, Kurt, Jr., *Slaughterhouse-Five*, Dell, 1971. $1.25.
Warren, Robert Penn, *All the King's Men*, Bantam, 1973. $1.50.

Poetry

Frost, Robert, *In The Clearing*, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1962. $1.95.
Mao Tse-tung, *The Poems of Chairman Mao*, Dell, 1973. $2.45.
Yevtushenko, Yevgeny, *Selected Poetry*, Pergamon, 1963. $3.00.

Drama

Anouilh, Jean, *Becket*, New American Library, 1964. $.75.
Ibsen, Henrik, *Doll's House and Other Plays*, Penguin, no date. $1.95.
Miller, Arthur, *Death of a Salesman*, Viking Press, 1949. $2.25.

Biography-Autobiography

Chisholm, Shirley, *Shirley Chisholm: Unbought and Unbossed*, Avon, 1971. $.95.
Kennedy, John F., *Profiles In Courage*, Harper & Row, 1964. $1.25.
Malcolm X and Alex Haley, *The Autobiography of Malcolm X*, Grove, 1965. $1.95.

Non-Fiction Social Analysis

Frankel, Viktor E., *Man's Search for Meaning*, Pocket Books, no date. $1.50.
Parks, Gordon, *A Choice of Weapons*, Harper & Row, 1973. $1.50.
Plato, *Apology*, in *Republic and Other Works*, Benjamin Jawett (tr.), Doubleday, no date. $2.50.
Schneir, Miriam (Ed.), *Feminism*, Random House, 1971. $2.45.

The themes and literature suggested convey perhaps more a sense of a "great books" course than a course trying to teach the "discipline" of literary analysis.* We also intend to convey in this course more the spirit of the humanities than the social sciences, that is, a concern more for holistic, unique personal experience, less with prediction and control through quantitative study of aggregates. Since we are here concerned with the genius of *expression about* experience (as opposed to precision recording of events), we look to the artist more than the traditional journalist or the scientist. The perspective that literature brings will at times establish a sense of historical continuity and commonality between students and others; at times it may dramatize distinctions and distance. At times it will suggest that students are involved in the "wrong" issues, and at others the most significant ones. However, any attempt to specify the precise benefits that accrue to those who read can be seen as incongruent with the humanistic tradition itself. That tradition is based more on the assumption that good works will enrich the lives of readers in unpredictable, ineffable ways that only the reader can know.

III. Course Activities

Without knowing particular works that would be read and the kinds of clinical work that students would pursue concurrently with the course, it is difficult to outline specific course activities. We can, however, suggest a range of possibilities. The major activity, of course,

*We do not intend, however, to restrict the medium to books. Distinguished writing is found not only in books, but increasingly in magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, and other sources. To the extent that great writers of the past have had their work published in book form, this is a convenience for readers, but we should not assume that the book medium has a monopoly on literary genius. Films will further assist in dramatizing issues raised in printed literature (consider, for example, films such as *Billy Budd, A Raisin in the Sun, Dr. Zhivago*).

will be reading, and the challenge is to design other experiences that help students gain the most from reading.

The reading will stimulate concern for both substantive and stylistic matters. In focusing on substantive matters, we would inquire descriptively and normatively about situations, events, people in the literature, asking such questions as "What are the similarities and differences among the situations in the literature and our own life experience?" "What evaluative responses (good-bad, right-wrong, pleasant-unpleasant) do we have to those situations?" When we focus on style, we inquire mostly about the way an author expresses the message and how alternative modes of expression might have different meanings: How was the plot organized to achieve suspense? What imagery seemed most critical in developing a feeling of peace of mind? What effects would a different rhythm have on the mode of the poem? At times the distinction between substantive and stylistic concerns will be hard to establish, but we assume that teachers will concentrate on one or the other.

Issues of style and substance can each be pursued through numerous activities which themselves might be distinguished as placing students either in an analytic or creative mode. In the analytic mode, the student stands back from the literature, trying to extract meaning from it; for example, moral discussion on whether sentencing Billy Budd to death was ethically justified. In the creative mode, the student participates in the literature or makes one's own literature; for example, students writing and acting out their own version of Billy Budd. A given activity might combine the two modes; for example, students might role-play an interview with Herman Melville asking about his intended message. Similarly, a given activity might be aimed either at issues of style or substance: students might be asked to write a review of *Billy Budd* which comments both on imagery and the relevance of the issue of literal interpretation of the law in contemporary affairs.

Activities such as the following seem appropriate:

Literature Reviews—oral and written, aimed at different questions and audiences.

Performing the Literature—acting-out plays, reading verse and stories aloud.

Role-Playing—interacting with the authors and/or characters in the literature through letter-writing, interviewing, playing their roles applied to contemporary situations.

Discussions—moral discussions; critiques of classmates' reviews, performances, and role-playing; building analogies between literature and current experience.

Exercises and Worksheets—assignments directed toward specific works might ask students to identify commonalities and universals, points of uniqueness, stylistic phenomena, other attributes of the literature that the teacher finds worthy of notice.

IV. Reading and Writing

Obviously, reading occupies the central focus of the course, and it would be desirable to introduce students to each of the five forms. The course offers an opportunity for two main kinds of writing: reviews of the literature and creative writing. In the latter category, students can write "letters" to the authors, short stories, poems, plays, etc., on themes consistent with the literature they read, and autobiographical or journal entries on how the writing and discussion of it seems to affect them.

V. Individuation

Since there is no obvious structure or required body of content for all students, the course offers great opportunity for individuation. Whatever themes the teacher may choose, students should be offered a variety of literature relevant to students' individual interests and ability. Students might group themselves on the basis of mutual interests in general problem areas (e.g., authority, integrity, loneliness) and/or literature forms (fiction, verse, etc.). Action project groups might present some of the more general philosophic questions that trouble them (e.g., when to compromise, how can an individual make a difference, who knows what is right), and the teacher could suggest literature relevant to those. Powerful statements on human issues found in the literature might also be incorporated into and stimulate students' public message projects. Since the spirit of the course is not universal coverage of specific texts, but to give each student a rich experience with some literature, there should be little conflict here between individual interests and group-wide curriculum. At the same time, there is great value in having the entire class read some works together. This offers a common literary experience for all to share, an opportunity for the teacher to communicate a common message to all, and the students will probably enjoy the "security" of a more conventional class format.

VI. Evaluation

We could assess student achievement in this course by gathering at least two kinds of information: inventories of what the student has read, and tests of the student's ability to discuss concrete experience in general or abstract terms. The inventories could list specific readings and activities completed in relation to those works (perhaps the teacher would require a minimum number in each form). The tests could be written or oral, short answer or essay, in which the student tries to identify general implications of specific messages.

Some teachers may wish students to remember particular pieces of literature and information about authors. In our view, this type of proficiency is not centrally related to citizen action competence, but a

case might be made for it (e.g., activists who impress their constituents and adversaries by appealing to well-known themes, characters, quotations in literature). Still, the evaluation scheme should reflect the central purpose of instruction: to teach students to put their own daily experience in perspective by referring to universal themes and categories of perception not normally represented in our common narratives. Student use of themes or abstractions can be "tested" by listening to their discussions, by reviewing autobiographical statements in journals, by assigning them case studies to interpret, or by giving them various interpretations and asking for their preferences and commentary.

VII. Integration with Other Components

As explained above, the course will lend perspective to the citizen action project, helping students to construe their work in the broader quest for social justice. Insights from literature can also stimulate ideas for the public message, suggesting personalities, cultural groups, social blueprints to highlight and supplying quotations from distinguished writers. The course supplements the communication course by extending student communication to sources far beyond the students' immediate community context. It amplifies concrete knowledge of political-legal process by offering diverse interpretive thought on the human use of power.

Chapter 7
Public Message

I. Goals

The public message course aims toward a creative, aesthetic experience that students may share with the community at large. The course concentrates on "mass" communication or general public audiences, and deals with television (especially public cable channels), radio broadcasting, print journalism, murals, motion picture film, still photography. We suggest that it be organized into two main parts: media analysis and message production, and that most of the work in producing the message be postponed until late in the school year so that students may first have an opportunity to learn media analysis, to learn production skills, and to accumulate provocative community experience.

One rationale for the public message is based on the claim that students have a social responsibility to share their work. Since school is publicly financed, the general public has a right to information about student activities. Moreover, in this program the students themselves share a collective identity, and they have a right to know what their peers are doing. The public message will help peers to hold each other "accountable." Finally, to avoid self-deception, to pursue the truth, and to grow intellectually, ideas should be aired to a variety of audiences, debated and tested in the crucible of open public exposure. A second rationale is grounded in the value of human creativity itself. We believe it is intrinsically "good" to express oneself imaginatively, to communicate about one's experience in ways meaningful to others and in doing so to use a wide range of media to express thought and feeling. A third and final rationale for the public message is its practical contribution to civic competence: skillful analysis of and use of media will enhance one's ability to exert influence in public affairs.

The public message should build several general program competencies, especially skills in (a) collecting and interpreting information on problems of social concern (relevant in both media analysis and production), (b) use of language to communicate effectively (relevant especially to the production phase that builds on the communication course by adding technical skills, e.g., script

writing, photography, film editing, journalistic reporting, layout and printing, acting), and (c) constructing abstract interpretations of concrete experience (relevant mainly in message production). To the extent that students work in groups to create their messages, this component also emphasizes working cooperatively in groups.

II. Course Organization

The course would meet second semester about 2 1/2 hours per week for 13 weeks, and up to 18 hours per week for the last three weeks. Much of this time would be spent in individualized or small group instruction and project work, but the beginning of the course would contain a major large-group unit on media analysis and the latter part would include a three-week period for production and sharing of messages among all students and the public at large.

A. Media Analysis

Before choosing a medium to work in and a message to produce, students need orientation to forms of media and realities of mass communications. The orientation can touch on four main areas: the nature of work in a medium, aesthetic and functional analysis, approaches to persuasion, and awareness of institutional structures that affect mass communications. This section could be spread out over most of the course, with major emphasis at the beginning.

Nature of Work in a Medium. To gain a sense of behind-the-scene realities in the production of public messages, students should visit and be visited by communicators: producers, actors, photographers, journalists, designers, script writers. If possible they should see the person at work and try to learn something of the nature of the profession or craft, including the working life style of the practitioner. This should supply important facts about the functioning of alternative media and give students alternative "models" that they may wish to emulate when it is time to produce their own message.

Aesthetic and Functional Analysis. Here the goal is to look more abstractly at media forms, and to try to articulate (imagine) the range of experiences they can provide, both for "producer" and "consumer." One might try to identify the power and the limitations of media forms such as motion pictures versus still photos, or newspaper versus TV reportage of the news. One might compare the features of animated film with realistic documentary film. Other topics might include the effect of various audio messages super-imposed on visuals, or differences between live acting and recorded productions. The point here is to connect the *nature* of the medium with its intended use or desired effect on an audience, and this requires a good deal of comparative analysis.

Approaches to Persuasion. Major functions of mass communications have been variously described, and persuasion is considered salient in almost all analyses (examples of other functions are information transfer and entertainment.) Since the ability to exert influence in public affairs depends largely upon persuasive skills, this is obviously critical in media analysis. While aesthetic-functional analysis looks generally at media characteristics, here we focus on the persuasive function and ask how media might be used when an author or producer deliberately wishes to persuade an audience to believe or do something. Included here would be "propaganda techniques," and other consciously used "tricks of the trade," for example, in commercial advertising, public relations, and political campaigns. Students would study tools used by the media worker not as an autonomous creative artist, but as a hidden persuader.

Institutional Structures. Students need information on the power structure that controls mass communications. How are TV programming decisions made? How are licenses given, rules enforced? How is editorial policy in newspapers formulated? How are the cultural offerings in one's community affected by local wealth and practices of distant booking agencies? Without delving into a detailed political-economic analysis, students need a general picture of the structures in media industries. Issues in this area could, of course, be raised during the first semester (especially in the legal-political process course), and, in the second semester, action projects to affect media offerings could be undertaken (e.g., a campaign to include more "youth news" on TV).

Media analysis on these topics should be structured primarily by the teachers, with help from media workers in the community and journalism-media teachers in the school. Students could pursue individual and small group projects by visiting media workers and specializing in their preferred medium. Once analytic categories or observation schemes are taught, students can then apply them in projects such as surveys of TV programming, retail advertising, editorial comment, the consumption habits of viewers, listeners, retail customers. Many books and materials are available on the "approaches to persuasion" theme, but for the other three areas, greater efforts in local curriculum development will be needed.

B. Media Production

Background in media analysis should help stimulate ideas for students' messages. The intent is to give students a chance to express themselves creatively, to let them speak to the community at large, describing what they have done and interpreting their work. The message is not merely to advocate and to persuade (although this may be included), but also to look retrospectively at one's experience, and to find something important that may be of interest to others; that is, to

draw some connection between specific events in their lives and more general human concerns. Students may work with motion picture film, videotape, still photography, slide-tapes, murals, newspaper articles, radio programs, live theatre, sculpture and physical models, special purpose pamphlets. They should not restrict themselves to straightforward, scientific, and systematic formats but should let their imaginations bring humor, suggestion, satire and subtlety into the messages. Ideally, production of the message should serve as a celebration or finale for the entire year's work; it should be fun. Production of the message involves a number of organizational issues which we discuss separately.

Message Types. What criteria should guide the production of messages? We suggest that the message involve a major effort–perhaps the equivalent of three weeks' full time work (scheduled to avoid conflict with other aspects of the second semester program). Subjects of the message should relate to students' previous work in the citizenship program, primarily the action project. The message should be meaningful to people beyond the peer group that creates it. We foresee three general message types. The first could be called a "retrospective synthesis." The students look back, somewhat autobiographically, at their work together and try to find something important to say about the experience. They might portray their own development as a group, trying to recapture the joys and frustrations of working together. They might elaborate upon a particular incident with a public agency that raised issues connected to their attitudes about "working on the system." They might try to draw some "lessons" from their experience and publish an action handbook that others working on a similar problem in the future might use. This sort of message offers great opportunity for consolidating, summarizing or "getting hold" of a large set of experiences. Some students may not be interested in this type of message, or some may have difficulty with retrospective conceptualizing, and in some situations there may not be enough time at the end of the action project to produce such a message.

An "advocacy action" message is a second type, often an integral part of an action project itself, rather than a separate effort after the project's completion. If students undertake an action project involving education or consciousness raising of the community at large, they may go to great lengths developing public messages as part of the action itself. They may produce considerable TV, radio and press material as a background or foundation to gaining support for some specific action. While it may enhance students' media skills and advance their action project, an advocacy message does not necessarily entail analyzing or reflecting upon one's experience the way a "retrospective" message does.

The final type of message can be called "features on issues and

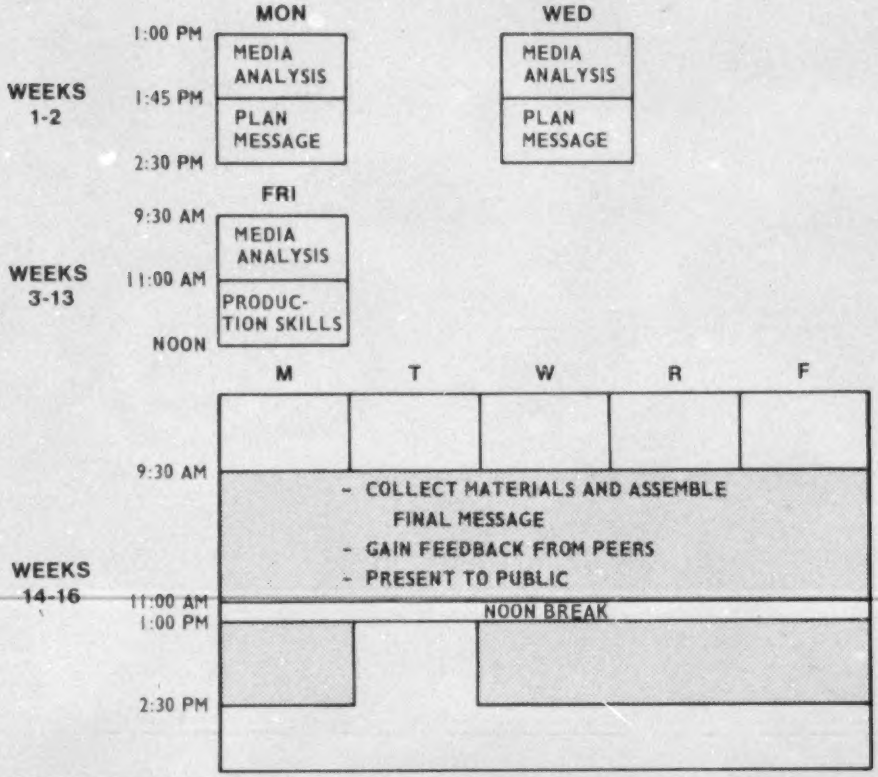
people." As students pursue action projects they may encounter problems or interesting people that they would like to pursue later. They may want to do a documentary on a local business, a pressure group, or an individual helpful to them during their project. They may discover a "side" issue that needs exposure (e.g., the costs and difficulties of getting access to the mass media) or a building that beckons for a community mural. This type of message concentrates less directly upon the earlier action project than either the retrospective synthesis or the advocacy action message. Here the action project serves as a take-off point from which to explore other matters.

Scheduling. Early in the semester students will need to make tentative plans for their messages. If they are inclined toward a "retrospective synthesis" or "people and issues" message, they will need to anticipate the kind of material to collect during the action project. Some may also need to learn technical production skills (e.g., use of camera, audio recording, special interviewing styles) early in the semester. Since the action project itself, however, should command primary attention during the first part of the second semester, most of the work in assembling and conveying the public message should be postponed until the final three weeks. At the same time, there should be opportunities throughout the semester for students to plan messages, to learn those production skills required to collect materials, and to actually collect some materials in rough form (photos, taped conversations, notes, documents) which can be edited and assimilated at a later time into the message. To show how all this might be scheduled within the allocated time for the public message, we elaborate on the sample program schedule given in Chapter 1. If this time is not sufficient, waiting periods or "down time" during the action project can also be used for preliminary public message work. We reiterate, however, the importance of saving most of the production work for the last three weeks of the course when it can be pursued without interruption.

An action project itself may demand major efforts in mass communications (e.g., raising community consciousness on a social issue), and in these "advocacy" messages, students would schedule conceptualization, data collection and production of the public message during the time of the action project. If students preferred not to create an additional public message (for example, one interpreting their own attempts in advocacy), they could spend most of the semester on their initial advocacy messages.

In scheduling production of students' messages, special time should be reserved for feedback from classmates, and each message should be presented to the class as a whole before it is released to the public. It

SAMPLE PUBLIC MESSAGE SCHEDULE
2ND SEMESTER



need not be presented in final polished form, but in such a way as to allow for constructive criticism and revision. Sharing of messages will give students ideas on how to improve them, will keep classmates informed of each others' projects, and will offer a consent forum where issues of editorial control can be raised. he sharing sessions should be scheduled far enough in advance so that producers have enough time to prepare and so that all classmates can reserve time to participate.

Grouping. We prefer students to relate the public message to their action experience and to remain in the action groups for message production. If students tire of working in the same groups this can lead to problems, but given the significance of the action project, it is crucial to keep those groups intact without other groups competing for the students' attention. The program should prevent group fatigue or exclusive preoccupation with the action group by encouraging students to interact with peers in contexts beyond their action groups.

The media analysis section of the public message will involve large and small group study not geared to action project groups. The action in literature course with its goal of gaining perspective beyond immediacies of the action projects will probably group students in a variety of ways. As suggested below, students from several different action projects may join together for skill mastery in clinics, while separate action projects are in progress. Prior to final dissemination of the public messages, each group will offer and receive feedback from the class as a whole, gaining perspectives beyond one's group. Within action groups, students can subdivide into task groups to pursue special skills and interests. For example, an action group may choose to tell its story through a variety of media, and students could form special groups based on media preferences. Or they might choose to tell their story through a single medium, but work on diverse topics around which students can form subgroups. While the action group should be the base upon which to create the public message, group fatigue can be avoided if students encounter this kind of variety in group work.

Technical Assistance. After students make tentative plans for their messages, it would be helpful to develop a class inventory of the kinds of technical skills required (e.g., photo work, layout and design, journalistic writing, etc.) and to design a program for teaching them. Production training can occur in occasional group workshops, and also through individualized instruction. If the social studies and English teachers lack appropriate experience, the skills can be taught by outside experts such as radio and TV producers, photographers, printers, graphic artists, advertising and public relations technicians, and especially the journalism or mass communications teacher in the local school. Other programs have shown that these people are usually willing to spend time in an occasional workshop or on an individualized consulting basis. Relying on their expertise helps to prevent the English and social studies staff from overextending itself. This also introduces students to more adults in the community. In addition to visiting experts, teachers should provide self-instructional books and manuals.

Ideally, we would like to teach all the media skills, but even with assistance from outside sources it will not be possible to teach the full range. It may be necessary to limit skill training to one or a few areas for the class as a whole. Perhaps all public messages one semester would be limited to video production and newspaper articles; in another, mural and still photography would be the selected media. Even under these conditions, teachers should rely on experienced technicians rather than trying to master and teach a new area themselves.

It would be interesting to see whether students might exchange their labor for technical help from experts. A local TV station might be interested in having students produce special programs. The professionals would teach students and give them access to facilities. In

return the students would create a message for public viewing. This idea might also be extended to newspapers and radio broadcasting.

Equipment and Production Funds. Production of messages will require equipment and materials: cameras, tape-recorders, slide and film projectors, special paper, copying machines, graphic art supplies, video and film editing devices. It would be helpful to build a fully equipped media studio for this program, but this may not be feasible during its initial years. Instead, equipment and materials will probably have to be borrowed from places in the school (departments of art, journalism, audio-visual aids, theatre, public relations) and the community at large (TV and radio stations, local retail suppliers of such items). Students and staff could organize a campaign to acquire such equipment on loan and to find donors to contribute items for a more permanent laboratory. A possible inducement to donors would be public acknowledgement by the students in the messages they create.

In addition to capital items there will be operating costs for items such as film and tape, printing, paint, construction materials. Part of these costs should be covered by regular per-pupil budget allocations for instructional supplies, and the staff must seek from the school a definite budget that provides a fair share of instructional supplies funds, based on the number of credits offered and number of students served. If this budget is insufficient, then students and staff may have to modify aspirations for message production or raise special funds through contributions. While the school must guarantee a minimal level of support before it is feasible to offer a media course, it is also consistent with this program's emphasis on citizen action to expect students to locate some of the resources. Yet, students should not be simultaneously involved in many different action efforts. One solution would be to create at the beginning of the year a special student committee (a management committee under the governance system, see Chapter 9) that would work on acquisition of media resources far in advance of production time.

Reliance on scarce equipment will raise issues of collective responsibility for its maintenance, security, and methods of sharing. Rules and procedures for enforcement on the use of equipment will be an issue for the governance system to resolve.

Final Control of the Message. Who has final editorial control over the message? If a message is seen by some teachers or students as "in bad taste," or of poor production quality, or even potentially libelous, they may exert pressure to change it or withhold it from public dissemination. Since the spirit of the public message is creative expression about matters that might not be raised by conventional media, all forms of arbitrary, coercive censorship must be resisted. On the other hand, students and staff must realize that the messages, as part

of school, are publicly sponsored, and that various constituencies, therefore, have legitimate interests in the messages. Furthermore, widespread public hostility can destroy the educational program itself. In planning their messages, students should anticipate public reaction and possible attempts at editorial control from teachers, administrators, outside agencies, and also classmates. When student messages are disseminated by outside agencies such as newspapers or broadcast stations, students may have to negotiate with authorities there to remain consistent with agency preferences and regulations. Within the school, students may also have to negotiate with teachers or administrators, and most importantly with their peers, regarding standards of quality.

Most of the students' attention will probably focus on differences among themselves. Nevertheless, students should not expect to be immune from adult influence. We hope that adults, especially teachers, would try to exert influence only through reasoned persuasion, not the use of coercive authority. That is, if a teacher or administrator has strong objections to a message, these should be communicated and discussed with students. Students may be persuaded to modify the message voluntarily, or possibly the adult may change his or her views. It also is possible that "reason" will not prevail and that the teacher (or some other official with proper authority) will decide to exercise coercive censorship. Whether the censorship is justified or unjustified will probably be irrelevant to the program's future. In any case, it is likely to crush creative spirit within the program.

Another aspect of the control question arises if students produce messages that others may wish to use or reproduce. They may create a useful action handbook, an interesting brochure on local history, a slide-tape show, a magazine like *Foxfire*, that generates public demand. On what basis should the message be made available after initial production by students? Who will make final decisions on the conditions of its distribution, or possible use of income from sale or rental? In some cases an outside media agency such as a TV station or newspaper may request certain rights as a condition for assisting students and providing them a forum. In other cases the school or Board of Education may claim rights to the material. Ideally, it should be possible for the students themselves to establish and to delegate full rights of ownership as they desire among those who worked on the project. These issues must be anticipated early in the program and clarified through appropriate school district authorities.

Finally, students must respect the rights of those they photograph, interview, and otherwise represent in their messages. They should ascertain the conditions under which a consent or release form from a subject is legally required. In general, they should make all reasonable efforts to inform sources of the way they intend to use solicited information.

III. Reading and Writing

In the media analysis section, there should be standard reading and writing activity for all students, but in the message production phase, reading and writing will vary among students and projects. Below we summarize the kinds of reading and writing activities to be stressed in each part.

Media Analysis. Reading: expository material on the nature and influence of different media; critical reading of print media—news articles, editorials, advertisements, political speeches, songs, scripts, interviews; critical "reading" (i.e., viewing and listening to) of nonprint media such as TV, photos, film. Writing: attempts to create or simulate selected items listed under critical reading of print media above.

Media Production. Reading: background documents necessary to develop the "content" for a message—newspapers, magazines, public records, statistical information; instructional manuals on media use; scripts; special documents containing media agency regulations and policy. Writing: scripts, news articles, editorials, handbooks, local history, biographical sketches, captions, poetry, songs, fiction.

IV. Individuation

During the media analysis section, much of the material should be examined by all students, but there should also be some opportunity for individuals to specialize in critical analysis of a special medium that interests them. During the media production phase, students in a group should divide production tasks among each other such that students may also specialize in areas of major interest and ability.

Significant problems can arise during the production phase, for goals of this experience can apparently conflict with each other. The goals in question are (a) producing a high quality message; (b) allowing individual students to pursue individual interests; (c) encouraging individual students to work on their weaknesses in communication skills. Quality will conflict with individual interests if, for example, the group needs good photographs, and the best photographer in the group prefers painting to taking pictures. Quality will conflict with communication skills if the script is written exclusively by a poor writer working to improve his writing. Interests will conflict with communication skills if the best photographer in the group wants *only* to take pictures and not work on her deficient writing skills.

Students should be alerted to these possible conflicts and encouraged to establish priorities within their groups. One way to handle diversity in competence is to have more competent students assist the less competent. As people share competence, there will be more opportunity to pursue individual interests and to learn new skills

without damage to product quality. For example, the best photographer who wants to paint may be given major responsibility for the photographs, but could train colleagues to do much of the photography, and would, therefore, have time to learn painting from a competent painter in the group. A poor writer might work on the script under the guidance of a talented writer. This type of sharing is more complex than dividing labor only to enhance product quality, but it is essential to allow for individuation in a project. In so doing, it also cultivates collective cooperation.

V. Evaluation

We suggest four areas of evaluation in the public message. Student skills in media analysis can be assessed by teacher-constructed exercises or tests that present various messages to students and ask for diagnoses along the lines taught in the analysis section of the course. Student media communication skills can be assessed by first establishing a "contract" with each student on the kinds of reading, writing, and nonprint skills to be mastered during message production. Evidence on student mastery may be obvious from the final message itself, but, in addition, it could be collected in a portfolio containing pieces of writing, photographs, testimonial comments from people who have observed the student's work, student reviews of assigned reading, special exercises assigned by the teacher as "minitests." Student contribution to the group's message should be assessed, perhaps by logs of hours worked, description of the type of work, and evaluative comments from peers. Finally, for each group product there ought to be some evaluation on the quality of the message. In planning the message (s) each group should arrange for receipt of feedback from the intended audiences and a method of assessing the extent to which the message seemed successful in achieving its goals. Questionnaires or interviews could be used to obtain the views of experts and the general audience.

VI. Integration with Other Components

The public message is primarily an extension of the action project and the communications course, but also a finale and synthesis for the entire year's program. It extends the action project by adding the dimension of creative expression to student attempts to exert influence in public affairs. It adds to the communication course by extending communication skills beyond the peer group and teacher to the public at large, and by communicating in "mass" media forms rather than more private channels. Hopefully the public message will benefit from ideas generated in the action in literature course, which also tries to interpret efforts to exert influence in public affairs.

VII. Materials and Resources

A. Media Analysis

Dieterich, Daniel, *Teaching About Doublespeak*, National Council of Teachers of English, 1976. $3.95. Imaginative, comprehensive analysis and suggestions on evaluation of public persuasion in speeches, advertisements, books. Outstanding teacher resource.

•Little, Joseph F. (Ed.), *Coping With Television*, McDougal Littell, 1973. $4.76. Comprehensive description of many aspects of the industry, including ownership and regulatory agencies, analysis of programming and advertising, ideas and resources for influencing TV. Teachers manual $.96.

•_____, *Coping With the Mass Media*, McDougal, Littell, 1976. $4.76. Teachers manual $.96. Book of readings on TV, radio, newspapers, advertising, movies, mass media in general by writers such as Marshall McLuhan, Nicholas Johnson, James Baldwin, Tom Wolfe.

•Schrank, Jeffrey, *TV Action Book*, McDougal, Littell, 1974. $2.80. Promotes active critical viewing with study sheets to help students gather data about programming (fairness in advertising, political bias in newscasts, images of women, etc.). Guides for taking effective public action. Explains structure of the industry, licensing rules and other institutional matters. Teachers manual $.60.

•_____, *Understanding Mass Media*, National Textbook, 1975. $7.95. Expository material, interesting visuals, projects for active student inquiry on TV, advertising, newspapers, radio, cartoons, magazines, records, media institutions and control.

•Skinner, Stanley, *The Advertisement Book*, McDougal, Littell, 1976. $3.84. Teachers manual $.96. Background on advertising techniques, nature of appeals to specific audiences. Reproductions of actual ads. Writing activities for students to convey emotion, to describe with precision, to be sensitive to the audience point of view.

Valdes, Joan and Jeanne Crow, *The Media Works*, Cebco Pflaum, 1973. $7.90. Creative activities for students in experiencing and analyzing films, magazines, still photography, songs, heroes. Organized according to such topics as "What It's Like Behind the Scenes," "The Daily Blat," etc. Includes good lists of resources.

B. Production

•Bensinger, Charles, *Video Tape Recording*, Peterson Publishing, 1973. $3.95. Concise and comprehensive manual, excellent as reference for technical details.

•Bruce, Helen Finn, *Your Guide to Photography*, Barnes and Noble, 2nd edition, 1974. $2.50. Thorough guide aimed at the beginning photographer.

The Cable Handbook 1975-76, Communications Press. $7.35. Chapters on regulation, new technologies, regional uses, minorities, school, health, etc.

•Coynik, David, *Film: Real To Reel* (revised edition), McDougal, Littell, 1976. $4.92. Teachers manual $.96. Text on film techniques (shooting, sound, light, motion, color, editing). Explores well-known directors, documentary films, animated films, etc. Advice for practical classroom film-making.

_____, *Moviemaking: A Worktext for Super 8 Production*, Loyola University Press, 1974. $3.50 text. $1.50 teacher guide. Clear, well-illustrated guide in workbook format with exercises for students, glossary.

•Glimcher, Sumner and Warren Johnson, *Movie Making: A Guide to Film Production*, Simon & Schuster, 1975. $1.45. Pocket size paperback, many photographs, glossary, fine guide for super 8 and 16 mm.

•Indicates materials appropriate for direct use with students.

*Laybourne, Kit, *The Animation Book*, Crown, 1977. No price. Comprehensive guide to producing animated films using a variety of techniques and inexpensive equipment.

_____ (Ed.), *Doing The Media*, Dantree Press, 1977. No price. Comprehensive guide in filmmaking, video, photography, sound, multi-media presentations. Written for teachers.

*Mitchell, Wanda B., *Televising Your Message: An Introduction to Television as Communication*, National Textbook, 1974. $6.00. Handbook for high school and college students about the tools, techniques and terminology needed to function in producing a TV program in a television studio. Includes details and also explains psychological, artistic and communication principles relevant to any telecast. Includes exercises, glossary, illustrations.

*Piper, James, *Personal Filmmaking*, Reston Publishing, 1975. $12.95. Complete guide to super 8 technical details, but also ideas for a variety of types of films.

*Robinson, Richard, *The Video Primer*. Quick Fox, 1974. $7.95. Detailed, comprehensive guide on all areas of video production.

*Rogovin, Mark, Marie Burton and Holly Highfill, Tim Drescher (Ed.), *Mural Manual: How to Paint Murals for the Classroom, Community Center, and Street Corner*, Beacon, 1975. $5.95. Specific, step by step guide on topics such as selecting a wall, transferring the sketch to the wall, paints and wall preparation, murals on cloth, finances, scaffolding, copyright. Developed by the Public Art Workshop (5623 W. Madison St., Chicago, Ill. 60644) which has numerous other publications on the topic.

*Slide Tape Collective. Helps people make, distribute, copy and exchange slide tapes. They have two handbooks on how to make slide tapes.

*Wood, Pamela, *You and Aunt Arie*. See Chapter 5 bibliography. Guide for students on how to produce a magazine, taking its stories from the students' own community. Helpful material on interviewing, photography, recording, film developing and enlarging, transcribing, writing the story, layout, business matters. Good illustrations.

Chapter 8
Staff and Students

I. Staff Background and Organization

Teachers have not been prepared through professional teacher education programs to teach this curriculum, but certification in social studies, English, and speech-communication offers some relevant background. Given a teacher with social studies certification, we would look for academic background in political science, law, sociology (as opposed, for example, to ancient history). In an English teacher, we look for strength in teaching general communication skills (as opposed, for example, to literary analysis). A person certified in speech-communication should have training in mass media and broad approaches to persuasion, not just conventional speech-making. Staff should also have administrative skills. No single staff member could be expected to have all this expertise. Two or more teachers will have to pool efforts and probably build new competencies as they develop and teach the curriculum.

Competence in the curriculum's subject areas must be supplemented by attitudinal qualities equally critical to the program's success. In order to build the curriculum and to work with students and staff in diverse roles, with shared authority, staff members should be willing to listen and learn from students, tolerant of ambiguity, interested in crossing discipline boundaries, eager to work with adults beyond the school, and sufficiently committed to citizen participation to be ready to justify the curriculum to critics in and out of school. Because we recognize the difficulty of locating teachers with the "ideal" combination of competence and attitude, and also the many institutional obstacles facing a circurriculum like this, we emphasize the importance of teacher commitment to work together on a small team, ready to pursue that special challenge which won't guarantee, but which holds out the promise of, very special rewards.

The program calls for sixty students and the equivalent of two full-time teachers. This is consistent with normal teacher-student allocations if we assume that the average high school teacher teaches five different classes of 25 students per day, providing instruction for

125 "student credits" (125 students, each receiving 1 credit for the course). In our proposal two teachers would offer 4 credits to 60 students for a total of 240 student credits, or one teacher would offer 120 student credits—close to the 125 student credits for the average teacher. The variety of experiences offered requires at least two full-time positions, so a school must attract sufficient numbers of students to justify that allocation.

Two full-time positions could be allocated in numerous ways. Because of the need for continuity and building a sense of community, however, we strongly urge that two teachers be assigned to the program full-time, supplemented by adjunct staff who work part-time for special purposes (e.g., media training, program evaluation, coordination of a community resource file, secretarial services). It may be tempting to allocate staff in a more specialized fashion—perhaps a skilled political science teacher would regularly offer part of the political-legal process course, an English teacher would join the program only for the action in literature course, a communication teacher might handle the public message. The argument will also be made that students prefer contact with a variety of staff instead of being limited to two. We resist this for several reasons. Since students will be engaged in diverse but related activities, staff members should have a comprehensive view of each student's work. To the extent that a student's time is fragmented among many staff members, each staff member will have an incomplete picture. Further, the program requires a sense of community in which all members share some responsibilities for management. To the extent that staff serve only part-time, with obligations to other constituencies, the sense of community declines. It is desirable for students to have contact with many adults, but the program does provide this, especially through the community internship and action project.

In a two-person team, leadership will be shared, but it will usually be necessary to designate one of these as coordinator so that administrators and outside agencies have a convenient official point of contact.

Staff should allow at least a full semester and a summer to prepare for the program (the development period is discussed more fully in Chapter 12). In addition to planning course syllabi and making community contacts, staff should select possible intern sites, and perhaps organize special workshops for themselves to develop new competencies, e.g., special instruction in the group-process aspect of the communication course or the use of media. Staff might also tour the community to meet with activists and public officials, inviting their suggestions for what to include in the curriculum. A specialist on evaluation could help in the planning stage. This period should also be used to build broad-based support in the school and community

(forming a citizen advisory committee, meeting with fellow teachers, see Chapter 11), and, of course, to recruit students.

II. Open Admission

All students may not be interested in the program nor capable of completing it successfully, but we will explain why it should be offered to all, on a voluntary basis, with the 11-12 grade level as the only general restriction on admission.*

Because the program aims to enhance student ability to exert influence in public affairs, its function is tantamount to insuring fundamental rights of citizenship in a democratic society. Denying a student the right to learn to become an effective citizen is thus equivalent to denying the right of political participation or consent of the governed. Any criteria used to exclude students from the course must, therefore, be justified with extreme care.

Does the curriculum imply prerequisites that must be mastered before one can participate productively in its daily lessons? Trigonometry, for example, builds on algebra and geometry; "advanced" Spanish cannot be studied without knowledge of "beginning" Spanish. We know of no such analogues for the learning of citizenship skills. Since the nature or internal structure of the "subject" does not indicate logical prerequisites, we find no convincing arguments for commonly suggested admission requirements such as high achievement in school, adult recommendations of student responsibility, demonstrated experience in civic action, or membership in a "disadvantaged" group.

We propose 11th or 12th grade status, because much of the curriculum requires persons capable of abstract, hypothetical, logical reasoning, or "formal operations" in Piaget's scheme. Research shows that these cognitive abilities tend to develop "naturally" (i.e., they are not a function of student success in specific coursework) from the age of 16 up. If this level of development were required in all parts of the curriculum, it would be appropriate to test students directly, rather than to rely on general correlates such as age or grade level. However, the curriculum will not operate exclusively at these levels, and students incapable of formal operations may also benefit. The consequences of direct testing to separate the "elite" ("cognitively mature") from the "rejects" would be disastrous to morale, and given our own uncertainty about the necessity of the requirement, unjustified.

Since most students eventually advance to 11th or 12th grade, the age-based criterion does not reject anyone, but only postpones learning to a later period in one's school career. The postponement is reasonable not only from the point of cognitive development, but also

*Because of the parent's legitimate interest in the student's welfare parental consent should be required as a condition of admission.

on the ground that the more experience students have and the closer to adulthood they become, the more meaningful issues of citizenship will be. Offering the curriculum at this time allows students to meet most graduation requirements first, and presents an opportunity to apply learning in previous subjects to community issues.*

We recommend an application process in which teachers explain the program in detail to interested students, meeting with them individually to establish personal contact, to answer questions, and to convey what will be expected of each person. To assist in planning, teachers may wish to gather information on students' reasons for applying, their interests in internships and action projects. Parental consent forms should also be completed as part of the application procedure.

Limited school resources might necessitate restricting the number of students, and at initial stages of development it will be advisable to limit enrollment to a pilot group of about 60 students. Student demand might exceed the space available. Given our position that among a group of 11th and 12th graders there is no justifiable way of determining who is more "qualified" or "deserving," the fairest way to select is to give each applicant an equal chance; that is, to select by lottery from among volunteers who complete the application process.

With the importance we attach to citizenship, some may ask why the curriculum should not be required of all students. If such instruction is so crucial to the functioning of democracy, then presumably all citizens should learn it. As a general principle, we cannot justify imposing a public restriction on a person's freedom (i.e., a requirement that students study this curriculum), unless we can claim with a high degree of certainty that this is required to avoid violation of basic rights, or that beneficial consequences will ensue, and, further, that the beneficial consequences override whatever disadvantages accrue as a result of the restriction on freedom. In spite of our support of this proposal, we cannot guarantee that the curriculum will in fact enhance student ability to exert influence in public affairs. If, as a result of development and experimentation, we could eventually demonstrate that such instruction does in fact produce the desired results without negative "side effects" then a requirement would be justified. At the moment, however, such a requirement is premature.**

*One advantage of entering the program in the 11th grade is that students will have opportunity to follow-up on projects, seeing the fruits of their labor. Twelfth graders are more likely to leave the community without the chance to observe or participate in follow-up activities.

**Many existing requirements in public schools (e.g., a year of U.S. history) cannot meet the challenge of showing guaranteed beneficial results which override the restriction on freedom entailed by the requirement.

III. Who's Interested?

Which students will volunteer? Will the program appeal to only a small group of articulate, socially conscious leaders? Some predict it will not attract politically alienated students, or those commited to standard offerings, whether college prep or vocational, or lower-income and oppressed students, or affluent students preoccupied with leisure interests. Since almost every student would fall into one or more of these categories, apparently few would be left to volunteer.

From another point of view, however, the curriculum should have wide appeal, because it does respond to some universal human needs:

1) Self-Expression. Regardless of differences in students' particular interests (e.g., sports, cars, music) all have needs to express themselves, to tell others about themselves in one language or another. The considerable emphasis that the curriculum places on communication offers plentiful opportunities for self-expression.

2) Caring and Helping. As children become adults, they progress from total dependence on others who care for them to becoming interdependent in the sense of "needing to feel needed." To the extent that adolescents can see themselves as being helpful to others, they can enhance their sense of worth. The curriculum, through the internship and cooperative group work, legitimizes and reinforces efforts to help and care for others.

3) Collective Association. Another transition from childhood to adulthood involves the change from solitary individual activity to collective efforts. People have a need to identify with, to belong to, a larger group, and they gain special satisfaction when members of the group cooperate to achieve tasks which individuals could not accomplish alone. Athletic teams and musical-dramatic productions are perhaps the only vehicles through which schools currently address this need. The civic action curriculum, in stressing the team and group work approach to problem solving, helps meet the need for collective association.

4) Sense of Justice. In spite of the accusation that young people are essentially egocentric, they all have a sense of fairness or justice. What they observe around them often violates this sense, and they burn with rage. Sometimes they suffer frustrating ambiguity or personal value confusion about what is "right." In the major efforts it gives to studying, reflecting upon and taking action on issues of social justice, the curriculum responds directly to the human need to define and work toward justice in human affairs.

5) Concrete Application of Knowledge. When knowledge is organized and taught through formal instruction it often becomes isolated from the direct experience of the learner. Students want to be able to use their knowledge, to apply it in a concrete way to their life in the "real world," the world beyond the school. Through its emphasis

on involvement in the local community, in providing specific services and in creating tangible products, the curriculum reinforces the human need to learn through and apply knowledge to direct experience.

Thus we argue that the civic action curriculum can respond to the needs of most students. The challenge is for teachers to present the curriculum in such a way that addresses concerns specific to students in a local school. For "politically alienated" students it would be helpful to indicate that the curriculum is not trying to convert them into establishment participants, but to help them spend some time exploring the roots of their cynicism, the issues that disturb them most. For students committed to a college preparatory or vocational track, it would be useful to schedule the curriculum such that it does not interfere, and to show how some of the coursework will actually contribute to college or vocational preparation. Students who want structure should be informed that the curriculum is in no sense an unorganized "do your own thing" alternative, but an alternative with considerable structure. Lower-income or oppressed students working for economic and/or psychological survival should be shown how their personal interests might be pursued through internships, action projects and other aspects of the curriculum. Similarly affluent students can pursue community dimensions of their personal interests.

The point is to convey a broad conception of citizen action. It should not be molded in the image of the articulate charismatic, full-time crusader and leader of national movements. While there should be opportunity for students to identify with famous activists and public officials, emphasis should be placed on issues and groups significant in the lives of "typical" citizens who can contribute as co-workers and followers, but need not become leaders and celebrated public advocates. Examples of local, relatively unpublicized groups trying to exert influence would include an organization that wants schools to give more attention to needs of the mentally retarded, a chapter of the Urban League that wants better public recreation facilities, a motorcycle club that needs permission to hold races on vacant public land, an ecology club trying to stop highway expansion, a theatre group that seeks a public subsidy. If citizen action is described in these terms and the curriculum responds to needs of youth identified above, we would predict large numbers of student volunteers.*

While we emphasize the importance of presenting the curriculum in such a way as to attract a diverse group of students, this must be done

*Even if only a small minority (say 5%) express interest, the curriculum should still be offered. If voluntary interest by a majority of students was a criterion for all educational offerings, schools would probably have to abolish instruction in many areas from French to physics. In fact, if all courses were voluntary, perhaps no single course could attract a majority. To the extent that any minority of students ought to have educational interests met, certainly those interested in improving their civic skills should have a fair share of the resources.

without sacrificing program goals. The program cannot be all things to all people, it cannot meet every student's every need. So that students do not misconstrue the program, it must be described in ways that clarify limits and boundaries as well as the numerous opportunities. General criteria for student work and performance, examples of clinical work that would be appropriate and inappropriate, rules and responsibilities in the governance system should all be available to students (and their parents) in advance of the decision to enroll. Major efforts at publicizing the program, and interviews with prospective students can help to explain what is expected, and this might deter applicants who would otherwise apply without commitment to the program's goals. Unfortunately, people often read into a message anything they want. Thus, among the volunteers we will inevitably find some students who seek experiences quite different from what the curriculum has to offer (e.g., aimless rap sessions, irresponsible "trips" to the community). This is a challenge to faculty morale, but it cannot be allowed to change the central objective of the curriculum.

To recruit and generate student interest, we recommend a carefully prepared brochure and staff meetings with prospective students and parents. Probably the major variable in attracting the first students will not be the nature of the program, but the quality and reputation of the teachers, along with the energy and enthusiasm they show in introducing it. Once established, however, students and parents will publicize the program informally. In succeeding years, data from evaluation reports can also be used to stimulate interest.

IV. Coping with Diversity

While a broad spectrum of students should be encouraged to volunteer, we are mindful of the teaching challenges this creates. Before announcing the program, staff should try to anticipate the extent of diversity in student competence and interests and how they will handle it. Students may vary considerably in reading and writing ability, in assertiveness in dealing with the adult world, in their preferences for action projects, and in their expectations as to how much work can be legitimately required of them. To prepare for diversity in such matters it may help to take positions on these issues:

1) Assuming that some students will challenge basic rules or expectations, how will the staff respond? We could make a list of various decisions that could arise and try to decide for each whether (a) we have a staff policy that cannot be changed (e.g., an average minimum of four hours per week must be spent in the internship); (b) the controversy could be resolved through negotiation with equal input from students and staff (e.g., when should there be group meetings to share individual internship experiences); or (c) students could resolve the issue unilaterally according to their preference (e.g.,

what evidence of student proficiency at the internship will be put into the student's portfolio). Of course, it is impossible to anticipate all the issues that may arise, but this procedure will help outline the boundaries of diversity on policy matters, and the Constitution discussed in Chapter 9 should be designed to handle them.

2) To what extent should disparities in student competence be handled by (a) teacher-organized individualized instruction including use of outside resources (e.g., special reading assignments, or tutoring in legal concepts); (b) students helping each other (e.g., experienced students teaching use of media equipment, giving editorial help to less competent writers); and (c) specialization of labor where there is no organized effort to improve individual competence (e.g., let the articulate advocates speak to public bodies rather than training the less articulate to do so). As staff members discuss the advantages and disadvantages of handling disparities in competence through such strategies, they will gain some sense of the extent of diversity that can be tolerated.

3) How will differences in students' substantive interests be handled? Students may differ in their preferences for the type of internships, action projects, and public messages, as well as in their ideas on the "relevant" books or articles to read. In some situations, staff will have to set specific limits on student choice; for example, in scheduling internships where students will have to choose among pre-arranged alternatives. In some cases the staff may wish to set general limits, but leave specifics up to students to negotiate among themselves; for example, it may be impossible for the staff to monitor more than five action projects, so students would be required to group themselves into no more than five projects, but any five of their choice. In the coursework, perhaps some reading assignments will be required of all, but others will encourage students to pursue individual interests. Finally, different interests may manifest themselves in heated ideological disagreement, and it will be necessary to teach students how to get along with their "enemies."

Problems caused by student diversity, should first be handled within the curriculum (e.g., developing procedures for mutual helping, compromising, modifying personal choices to cope with limited resources). If satisfactory procedures cannot be devised, then it will be necessary to reduce the range of diversity permitted in the program. While this can be justified from the point of view of effective management, it should be undertaken only as a last resort, and implemented with due respect for the principle of equal opportunity.

Diversity in staff roles can also cause difficulty, for often a staff member may feel the need to function in several roles at once, as:

expert—an authority who knows a field or skill that others are trying to learn.

general facilitator—an adviser who helps students frame a problem, suggests strategies for solving it, and as a "broker" puts them in touch with resources and expertise that the teacher cannot supply directly.

counselor—a trusted confidant, offering a sympathetic ear, emotional support, and specific suggestions to help students cope with uncertainty, hard choices, challenges.

administrator—someone responsible for keeping in touch with the overall operation of a program, anticipating and arranging for details of maintenance and accountability to various constituencies.

It can be helpful to clarify the source of the role strain. When difficulties arise, we can ask whether the problem might be due to (a) demands from external sources to play more than one role at the same time (e.g., a student needs teaching and an administrator needs a report); (b) conflict between expectations of external sources and our personal preference (e.g., the teacher may enjoy the role of expert, but the students want primarily a counselor); (c) internal ambiguity about preferred roles (e.g., a teacher wants to be both administrator and general resource, but cannot decide which to give most attention); (d) lack of competence to perform a required role (e.g., feeling incapable of effective counseling). Unfortunately we know of no generalizable solutions to these problems, but we suspect their resolution rests ultimately in the idiosyncratic ways that individuals learn to cope and people learn to help each other. As a first step, staff and students should discuss these problems with one another.

V. The Staff Challenge

The program makes rigorous demands on teachers. They are asked here to create unconventional curriculum, coordinate relationships with countless adults and community agencies, share some authority with students in a special governance system (see Chapter 9), and teach a variety of courses to the same group of students for a year. Committed innovators are known to work beyond the call of duty, almost to exhaustion, and this can hurt a program as well as the individual staff persons. To avoid this suicidal course we call attention to four main areas:

A) Delegation of Work and Decision-Making. Arriving at decisions through democratic governance is most time-consuming and energy-draining. In setting up a governance structure, inconsequential decisions should be delegated to individuals (students or staff) so that only major issues need be considered in committees and public forums. In order for delegation of power to work, there must be trust between decision-makers and the "governed."

The staff must establish an expectation that, because of the

complicated nature of the program and limited staff, all students (and possibly parents) must donate some time to program maintenance. An inventory of various jobs or problems can be made and assigned to people. Some of the tasks and possible helpers which immediately come to mind:

Task	*Helper*
transportation	students and parents
audio-visual equipment	students and media services director
clerical-secretarial	parents or students (perhaps in business education)
clean-up	students
program evaluation	other teachers in the school as data collectors (observing, interviewing)
record keeping and scheduling	students
fund raising	parents and students

We have not included here a plea for instructional and counseling assistance in special areas which could be provided by fellow teachers, community volunteers, and students. The local PTA or volunteer service bureau, for example, can often supply a variety of help. Monitoring a complicated network of helpers might seem like creating more rather than less work for staff. The staff will have to weigh the net advantages of offering a program that depends on many helpers who give staff more opportunity to teach, versus a program where staff have more direct control over the "details" but less time to teach.

B) Limit the Range of Pursuits. As mentioned previously, it may be necessary to reduce the range of options for internships, action projects, public messages. There are obvious dangers in eliminating student options, but if some curtailment is necessary to make the program manageable, it must be done.

C) Special Wind-Down Time. To insure that staff and students do not spend all their energy on serious issues of program maintenance, special types of "wind-down time" should be scheduled with a moratorium on or "vacation" from program activities. Some of this time might be spent privately. Some of it might involve program parties or celebrations. Some of it might involve having a workshop, an outside speaker, or an experience completely unrelated to the program's usual work.

D) Adequate Resources. As a final point, we must emphasize the need for adequate resources. It is imperative that the two full-time teachers be released during the development period and that they have paid auxiliary staff to help with secretarial work, coordination of community resources, and evaluation. Sufficient funds must be provided for instructional materials and media supplies. All too often innovators try to survive on a "shoe-string," scraping and scrounging, working over-time, and the staff burns out. The innovation fails for lack of proper resources, but blame for the failure is attributed to the nature

of the proposed innovation rather than inadequate support. Educational reformers have a tragic tendency to assume "doing something is better than doing nothing." This well-intentioned principle backfires when lack of proper resources at the outset dooms a project to failure, thereby indicting in the public's mind the legitimacy of the innovation itself.

Chapter 9
Governance

I. Expanding Student Participation

The program outline requires greater student participation in program decisions and in management work than conventional school courses. We urge an expanded student role in governance, based on a concern for student rights, and in order to enhance students' civic competence. To authentically value active citizen participation, the program must make it possible for students to participate in the institution that most immediately affects them—the school. To deny them the opportunity to exert influence in their most salient environment would constitute a blatant hypocrisy, undermining motivation and learning. On a more positive note, the roles performed in participatory governance structure contribute to the seven goals of the curriculum. There will be considerable laboratory practice in gathering information, justifying one's views, working cooperatively with others, communication—all required to run a public education program. The roles offer opportunities to expand competence and to enhance cognitive and personal development by confronting the many issues encountered in an active consent process. Finally, student participation is necessary to manage the program. Because students will use limited resources, in the pursuit of different individual interests, at different times in different places, they will need to cooperate on scheduling and sharing resources. Because the program will involve so many administrative details, students will have to do some of the work.*

Before outlining a governance structure, we must clarify our conception of expanded student participation. We distinguish first of all between program decisions and management work. Program

*We recognize and support other rationales for building community, especially those that emphasize fundamental human needs served by interdependence in small groups (Donald W. Oliver, *Education And Community: A Radical Critique of Innovative Schooling*, McCutchan, 1976), or those that highlight an ethic of global interdependence as requisite for survival (E. F. Schumaker, *Small Is Beautiful*, Harper & Row, 1973). Here however, we limit our argument to the more "instrumental" value whereby student participation and sharing are vital to achieve the educational ends of the program.

decisions involve questions such as: What should be done about students who don't attend classes and important group meetings, or who don't contribute to group projects? If the action projects must be limited to a few topics, what should those be? When should various events be scheduled—community meetings, group discussions of internships, presentation of public messages, skill clinics? Management work would include such tasks as arranging for availability of audio-visual equipment, bringing food to a program picnic, helping the secretary run off mimeos.

Some citizens (students) may want the power to make important decisions for the community, but they may not want to contribute time and effort to implement them. Conversely, some will contribute time and effort if they are told what work to do, but they do not want responsibility for making difficult decisions for the community, especially those that appear to hurt people (e.g., imposing a penalty for violation of a rule). In our view, all students should participate to some extent in both roles, for both are necessary in living in a democratic community. Students will vary in their reactions to these roles, but for their reactions to be informed, they must first have significant experience in them. The governance structure should, accordingly, encourage all students to participate in both decision-making and performance of routine work.

One major question is, how far should the student's decision-making role be expanded? Ideally, it may seem attractive to see everyone—all students and staff—as having equal power in the program and to have an authority structure emerge informally in which persons, through differences in competence and commitment, would earn respect and the right to exercise power over each other. Experience with innovative governance schemes shows convincingly that this "organic," "let-the-structure-emerge" approach will not work in school programs.

This is due largely to the fact that staff, regardless of ideal visions of equal status, cannot escape their inherently different roles from students. Staff may feel responsible for the education of all students, but each student is likely to feel personally responsible only for his or her education. In succeeding years, staff will have to face the program's precedents, but students are involved only in a one-year transient experience. Staff have more expertise than students, although the students will not always perceive this. Finally, only staff, not students, can be held legally accountable for program activities. Because of these unavoidable differences, the government structure must recognize staff in a central position of authority. It must be made clear from the outset that expanding student participation cannot mean turning the whole program over to students, or that power will be equally shared. Other programs have suffered from the hypocritical illusion that students and staff are equals in the governance structure. The goal

cannot be equal power, but a governance system that expands student participation, and, in so far as it is possible, protects the rights of students and staff.

II. Outlining a Structure

During the development phase, staff members should create a Constitution. The Constitution should delineate areas of authority and jurisdiction of committees and offices (roles). It should provide for selection of people to those committees and offices. Wherever feasible, it should provide an appeal process. We see the Constitution essentially as a staff document which publicizes the program's decision-making structure. Students should not have formal authority to change the Constitution, although it would be wise for staff to include provisions for systematic, periodic input on students' recommended amendments for succeeding years. The Constitution should be supplemented by laws or regulations made through its structure to carry out daily program operations (e.g., a rule that certain classroom space be reserved for a lounge area or an open library).

An initial step in preparing the Constitution is to list major areas of decision-making, and to consider for each where ultimate authority should rest. We indicate some of the options below, and have filled in preferences intended not as recipes for all, but as starting points for several schools with which we are familiar.

FINAL DECISION-MAKING AUTHORITIES

DECISION AREAS ▼ / "FINAL" AUTHORITIES ▶	staff	staff with formal student input	(joint body of students & staff	students with formal + staff input	students
Constitution (original)	X				
course content		X			
program schedule			X		
use of space & equipment			X		
awarding of credit & evaluation of student achievement		X			
visitors and public relations			X		
records and clerical policy		X			
use of funds			X		
program evaluation		X			
students' projects' topics				X	
student "guilt" or "innocence" for alleged violation of program rules			X		
penalties for violation of program rules			X		

Note that we have not recognized *informal* input from students or staff, which of course should be encouraged in all areas. Also in the case of joint bodies, it may be necessary to specify what proportion of what constituency is needed to make a decision (e.g., perhaps a majority of staff and students each is required to make rules about visitors). In some cases it may be advisable to specify special veto power (e.g., the staff coordinator with regard to use of funds). The chart does not outline a comprehensive system, but illustrates a way of differentiating clearly between student and staff decision-making authority.

A committee system should be established to discharge functions outlined in the Constitution. There will be need for some standing committees and provision for ad hoc committees, but committees should be created with care and only if it is clear that they have specific work to do at specific times. Successful governance systems in alternative schools suggest three types of committees: Advisory committees give formal input to staff on such matters as course content or grading and credit policy. Judicial committees attempt to enforce rules related to student conduct (missing classes, irresponsible use of equipment). Management committees handle a variety of administrative arrangements such as welcoming visitors, planning the schedule, keeping files of community resources. Membership on committees can be randomly assigned, appointed, elected, or volunteer. Having students volunteer is generally most successful, but if this proves unsatisfactory, other approaches should be available.

The *community meeting* should occupy a central place in the governance structure. All paid staff and students registered in the program would be voting members. In addition, "auxiliary" persons such as community contacts, volunteer teachers, parents, and others who assist or are affected by the program can also be invited, and their voting power should be indicated in the Constitution. Community meetings should be regularly scheduled (e.g., once a week). In addition to regular meetings, there should be provision for calling of "crisis" meetings on short notice by staff or a certain number of students. Regular community meetings should have three functions:

1) Communication of Program Information. Calendar and schedule items, resources, requests for help, and governance decisions can all be publicized through the meeting. Committees and staff should be obligated to report their decisions and encourage discussion of program operation. The community meeting is a good source of informal feedback on the program, and what changes might be appropriate.

2) Entertainment, Sharing, Celebration. The meeting can offer a time for fun and special activities that go beyond regular coursework: guest speakers, films, student skits can be presented, and the community might join in songs and ceremonies.

3) Decisions on Program Operation and Formal Review Thereof. Committees may seek the community's views on some issues, and community members may appeal decisions of committees. The community meeting should have authority to instruct committees, to review their decisions, and, of course, to make rules (according to authority as designated in the Constitution) for the whole program community.

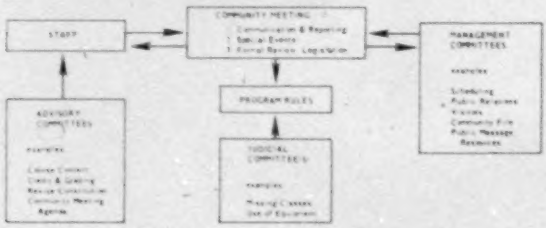
Because of importance of the community meeting in coordinating the program and in building a general sense of community, a special committee should be specifically charged with planning and/or chairing community meetings.

Coordinator. So that people in the larger school bureaucracy and the general public will know who is responsible and who to contact for information, most schools will wish to designate one staff member as coordinator or program director. In the eyes of the bureaucracy and the public, the coordinator will technically have complete power to run the program. This should not be disguised from students, but it should also be pointed out that this need not squelch democratic governance.

The program's Constitution might delegate many matters to the coordinator, but on certain important issues it should bind the coordinator to committee and community decisions. At times a coordinatory may feel great anguish over conflicting obligations to the larger bureaucracy versus to the program community, but this is a personal problem, not an unresolvable structural one. The community's governance structure can subject the coordinator to a reasonably democratic process which allows him or her to participate in and influence the group's actions, but to the extent that a coordinator actually preempts or overrides community decisions without the community's Constitutional authority, democracy in the community fails. With a coordinator committed to the process, however, this is unlikely. Experiences of many alternative schools show that the coordinator can occupy a role of almost unlimited authority in the eyes of the external bureaucracy, but exercise that authority only as directed by the democratic process in the program community.

A governance structure consistent with this outline is diagrammed below:

A GOVERNANCE STRUCTURE



III. Sources of Frustration

Expanding the student role in governance will bring new issues and anxieties, many of which are predictable. Some represent problems unique to this program, but others may signify inevitable consequences of participation in self-government, regardless of the particular structure. Committed to the goal of enhancing participation skills, we must anticipate and prepare to cope with sources of stress rather than avoid them by eliminating governance activities.

A. Limited Authority

Student morale may suffer because of their limited authority. They will have to abide by general school policy over which they have no formal control, and since the teacher should retain ultimate authority over instruction and grading, they may see themselves as impotent. To the extent that staff members have thought about issues more carefully and can articulate their views more persuasively, students may feel intimidated and see their role as insignificant.

Part of this can be alleviated by explaining in initial program descriptions various limits on student power and authority, so that at the outset students have an accurate, undistorted view of their formal power in the governance structure. A certain amount of disillusionment can be prevented by full disclosure at the beginning. If students actually want more power than is available to them in the formal structure, their *informal* power should be emphasized. Widespread student discontent with a new, voluntary, experimental program will kill it, so from a political standpoint it is in the staff's interests to please students and meet their "demands." If organized, students can exert power informally in and out of the classroom, pressing for changes. The informal use of power might eventually lead to changes in the next year's Constitution or even changes in School Board policy that would expand students' formal authority. Such changes do not come for the asking, but the program need not apologize for this. Its mission is not to give students the right to control their destiny, but to help them participate in the continuing, endless, human struggle to attain that right.

Staff will have to be sensitive to the consequences of overpowering the students with fluency, knowledge and experience. And they (staff) will have to cope with that sense of guilt which for some, accompanies the realization that regardless of attempts to structure authority more equally, the staff still holds the cards. Staff may wish to restrain their influence in governance matters by relying on majority rule and student leadership in committees and by restricting their own verbal participation. This can in the long run bring charges of hypocrisy from students and guilt to staff. They must take care not to abdicate authority, especially on matters requiring educational expertise or

judgments of student competence in coursework. Quality or excellence in communication skills or knowledge of political-legal process is not to be determined by votes. The distinction between governance decisions and educational decisions may at times seem difficult, but it should be introduced at the outset and maintained. This, of course, does not preclude staff from welcoming student opinions on course content, reactions to particular teaching styles, or student evaluation of staff performance. It does deny the obligation of staff to structure their teaching exclusively and unconditionally according to student input.

This point shows that the primary mission of the governance system in this program is not political, but educational. The rationale for limits on student authority in order to proceed with education may have to be explained, but as long as those limits are clearly related to legitimate educational goals, students will probably not question them. The *educational* mission of the program in relation to governance is discussed further below.

B. Active Versus Passive Students

Some staff and students may expect a version of direct democracy in which all citizens participate enthusiastically in all decisions. Virtually all experience, however, falls far short of this fantasy, even in situations where every opportunity for participation is offered to all. Generally, only a small proportion of students are likely to participate vigorously in management decisions, and this can create tension. The high participators resent the "apathetic" students for not doing their share. The low participators resent enthusiastic leaders for being "power hungry." Unequal levels of participation is another one of those "facts of life" that should be discussed openly.

As students and staff share frustrations, it should become clear that in a system relying on voluntary interest in policy-making, the enthusiastic participators have a "right" to lead, and apathetic followers have a "right" to let others control events. The assumption of voluntary involvement in decision-making however, does not require a voluntary labor system. It can be legitimate to compel every student to contribute a minimum amount of work to keep the program functioning (e.g., minimum hours helping in the office, arranging for field trips, taking care of a-v equipment), and to apply sanctions for non-compliance (denial of certain program privileges or expulsion). Keeping the distinctions between decision-making and work in mind may thus help discussions on community participation. Students and staff may see fit to compel attendance at community and/or committee meetings, or even to require rotating leadership on certain committees. Before passing any regulations of this sort, however, careful attention must be given to their effectiveness and especially to the community's ability to enforce them. So that due notice is given, minimum work or

participation requirements and sanctions should be specified when students apply to the program. If these are not specified, the fact that they could be, and the process through which this would occur, after the program begins should be explained thoroughly.

Realizing that because of differing levels of student interest and ability, a governing "elite" is almost inevitable, the Constitution and program roles should give special attention to encouraging wide participation and preventing the rulers from becoming an isolated minority. Due notice of meetings, agendas planned in advance, required full disclosure and communication of all decisions, and providing specially scheduled time for all to participate in governance can help toward this end.

C. Time

Students and staff will become impatient with the extraordinary amount of time spent in arriving at committee decisions, and fatigued by the stress involved in working with people. Issues related to group dynamics and working with people will be dealt with in the communication course. Staff should help students apply those principles as much as possible in governance deliberations. Here we restrict our attention to the "time" problem.

We have three suggestions. First, there should be a regularly scheduled block of time for participation in governance, a time that must be reserved and protected by all, even though it may not always be used. That time would include community meetings, plus the work of committees, individual study or "leg-work" related to governance. Second, the staff should offer special instruction (skill clinics) on time-saving techniques such as how to plan an agenda, run a meeting, delegate authority within a committee, or use the telephone. Finally, whenever possible, issues raised in the governance system should be studied and clarified within the formal coursework. If, for example, there seems to be much time devoted to discussion of whether it is fair to force the whole community to do something, this issue could be studied in the political-process course. To the extent that the issue becomes resolved or clarified outside of the governance process, it will save time in the governance discussions. While the coursework should not be dictated by what happens in governance, it should, wherever possible, relate to it. This will help teach the course material more effectively and also alleviate some of the time burden from governance activities.

IV. The Educational Mission

In the heat of debate over how funds should be allocated or what penalty to apply to a student found guilty, it may be difficult to stand back and realize that the reason for participating in these issues is to become more educated about democratic process. The political-legal

system in the world at large, however, was not created to educate, but to handle conflict and to produce decisions for a community. In contrast, our program or any experience sponsored by school must be designed first for its educational value to students and second for other purposes.

Staff, therefore, must "use" the governance process to help teach the program's general competencies. As mentioned above, this can be done by bringing governance matters into the course work; for example, devoting time in the courses to develop positions, create messages, learn facts related to governance problems. It can also be done by staff taking coursework into the governance process; for example, in a committee meeting a staff member might unobtrusively "teach" some reasoning behind the Constitutional right to due process, or instruct students on how to get a random sample if they propose to gather student opinion on an issue. In a more general sense the governance experience will give students data on which to form opinions about participation in a democracy. Whenever possible, the dilemmas and frustrations that arise in the daily struggle to govern should be translated into issues in the society at large. The perception of similarities and distinctions between one's own attempts at democracy in school and the workings of the large system will presumably assist students in formulating views about and interacting with both.

V. Materials and Resources

Affective Education Program, *The Journal of Interdependence*, the Program, 1974. $3.00. A 200 page mimeographed handbook speaking to the What, the Why, and especially the How, of interdependence in secondary school settings. Written for the teachers of Philadelphia to help make teacher-student and student-student relationships more collaborative and positive. Many good ideas for community meeting.

Benson, Dennis D., *Recycle Catalogue*, Abingdon, 1975. $6.95. A collection of over 700 ideas for learning, fellowship, mission, celebration; spirited descriptions of experiences and practices appropriate for community meetings or informal fellowship.

Center for New Schools, *Decision-Making at the Classroom Level: Some Realities*, the Center, 1974. $2.00. An analysis, by case study, of classroom events associated with trying to let students design their own educational experiences.

_____, *Decision-Making in Alternative Secondary Schools: Report from a National Conference*, Center for New Schools, 1972. $2.50. Reports a conference of 31 experienced people. Clearly introduces the scope of the problem and points out major areas of controversy. Highly recommended as a "first source" on governance.

_____, *Do Too Many Cooks Spoil The Broth?* Center for New Schools, 1973. $1.75. Exploration by case study of the general problems of involving a variety of constituencies (students, parents, teachers, administrators, school boards) in decision-making.

_____, "Strengthening Alternative High Schools," *Harvard Educational Review*, Vol. 42, No. 3 (August, 1972). Based on extensive involvement with Metro High School in Chicago, this is a perceptive analysis of student involvement in decision-making.

Clark, Todd, and Mary Furlong, *Decision and Managing School Conflict*, The Constitutional Rights Foundation, 1975. $3.00. Two simulation activities each based on a number of controversial issues in educational policymaking.

Jacoby, Susan, "What Happened When a High School Tried Self-Government?" *Saturday Review*, 1 April 1972. Describes the "governing board" of Staples High School, Westport, Connecticut, made up of 10 students, 7 teachers, and 3 administrators, and requiring a 60% agreement on decisions.

Kohlberg, Lawrence, Elsa Wasserman and Nancy Richardson, "The Just Community School." In Kohlberg, Lawrence, *Collected Papers on Moral Development and Moral Education*, Vol. II, Center for Moral Education, 1975. $10.00. A seventy-five page exposition of theory and structure of a governance process consistent with Kohlberg's theory of moral development. Although an experiment with this process is underway at the Cambridge Cluster School, findings of this experiment are not presented here.

Miller, Lynne, *Patterns of Decision-making in Public Alternative Schools*, Booklet No. 12 of the National Alternative Schools Program, 1974. $1.00. Based on a study of 46 schools, the author finds four different models of decision-making, and discusses characteristics, popularity, and implications of each.

Roberts, Donald A., *Changing Patterns of School Governance*, National Association of Independent Schools, 1974. $2.00. Also *ERIC Document* #098 668. Examines innovative governance patterns in 25 independent schools around the country. Wide-ranging and very readable. Effectively reviews common practices in student participation, pointing out successes, failures, and fallacies. Less attention to innovative practices and emerging strategies.

Sirkin, Joel, *Pilot School Governance 1970-71, ERIC Document* #056 382, 1971. Narrative of experiences of staff and students of the Cambridge Pilot School with new governance techniques involving a high degree of student participation. Details typical policy dilemmas and incidents of controversy.

Witte, Glorianne, Joan Chesler and Dale Crawfoot, *Student Power: Practice and Promise*, Citation, 1975. $4.95. Detailed examinations of six alternative schools which have tried to build student power and participatory governance. Concise chapters devoted to analysis and comparison.

Chapter 10

Evaluation

Attempts at educational evaluation are plagued by conceptual confusion, inadequate techniques, lack of resources, and conflicting ideologies about the major purposes of evaluation. As a result, most evaluation efforts, whether in traditional or innovative programs, fail to collect data in ways that allow for generalizable inferences about program impact. Most of the obstacles to evaluation of the citizen action curriculum arise not from the curriculum's unique content, but from these more general problems in educational assessment. While we cannot surmount all the difficulties we shall suggest an evaluation strategy aimed at four main purposes: accountability, credentialing, program improvement and student learning.*

When evaluation is used to establish *accountability* the central question is the extent to which a contract has been fulfilled. Teachers make agreements with administrators, administrators make promises to school boards, and school boards make promises to their constituents–all in reference to rendering services to students. Whether the school claims to increase reading scores, reduce vandalism, promote constructive human relations, or prepare students for college, taxpayers, parents, and students are all interested in whether the school meets it commitments, and one major function of evaluation is to gather information on whether explicit or implied commitments have been fulfulled.

Regardless of the particular commitments that a school makes to various constituencies, large numbers of people believe the school should also answer the question: "What competencies or achievements does the student have that predict future performance in other situations?" This is the *credentialing* function where the task is to gather information about student achievement in terms that have

*Rather than offering a technical definition of "evaluation," we discuss four interpretations relevant to curriculum developers. We omit terminology highlighted mainly in academic scholarship (e.g., criterion vs norm referenced testing, goal-free evaluation, ethnography), for much of the knowledge disseminated in academic circles does not respond to major evaluation concerns of school teachers.

common public meaning and that help to predict future success in education or on the job. The credentialing function requires different schools to offer standard names for courses, standard bodies of content, to use a common system of grades (A, B, C, . . .) and credits, standardized tests, diplomas, and accreditation agencies. Information gathered to establish credentials may be relevant to documenting accountability (and vice versa), but the functions are logically independent.

Data on the extent to which a program achieves its objectives or data on the standard competencies demonstrated by students will not necessarily indicate what should be changed to improve the program. To evaluate for the purpose of *program improvement*, we would need information about how various people react to aspects of the program. Their experience might generate suggestions for new approaches in classroom teaching, modification of schedule, reorganization of components. Information of this sort could be irrelevant to answering accountability and credentialing questions, yet crucial to helping local educators.

Finally, teachers are concerned with the question, "How can I give evaluative feedback in ways that help students learn?" From the teacher's point of view, the main purpose of evaluating student work is not to label the student so as to serve some external agency, but to increase *individual student learning*. If we design evaluation with this purpose in mind, we would probably search for information on idiosyncratic learning styles, alternative ways of measuring success, and ways of offering constructive criticism to individual students. This type of evaluation would differ substantially from evaluation aimed at the first three purposes. Distinctions among evaluative purposes should suggest different ways of collecting and using data.

I. Accountability

A. Citizen Action Competencies

Since the proposed program aims to enhance action skills, evaluation should determine the extent to which that contract has been fulfilled. The most general curriculum goal—increased ability to exert influence in public affairs—however, is not phrased in a form susceptible to quantitative assessment. This should be seen more as an inspirational or symbolic concept to guide the planning of instruction, not as a specific skill to be mastered and tested. It would be appropriate, however, to gather data on the seven more specific competencies (see Chapter 1). Since any part of the curriculum will probably touch on more than one of the seven competencies, we should gather evidence on each competency in a variety of contexts. We recommend that students build portfolios and, as they move from one experience to the next, insert various kinds of evidence documenting achievement on the

competencies.

At the beginning of the program teachers and students will have to develop portfolio guidelines. Forms can be devised for collecting data relevant to each of the competencies. Entries can include completed class assignments, testimony from community contacts, teachers and peers, scores on standardized tests, checklists of activities and sample exhibits. Criteria for demonstrating competence should be established, with special attention to the distinction between proficiency and productivity. Productivity refers to the completion of tasks or the meeting of work commitments. If a student agrees to write an article for a newspaper, he or she can be evaluated on whether the article was completed in time according to the required format. Proficiency refers to the *quality* of work completed or evidence of skill and knowledge. Some students may be highly productive in the sense of completing assignments, but show low proficiency, while others might score impressively on tests of proficiency, yet be unproductive in completing assigned work. In building portfolio guidelines, it may be advisable to stipulate minimal criteria for productivity and proficiency for some competencies, while in others the goal would be growth or improvement, rather than an absolute level. In some cases, the data to be submitted might be determined through individually negotiated contracts between student and teacher. Since there are no proven techniques in the use of portfolios, final guidelines must be left to the wisdom of local teachers. The chart below lists data appropriate for documenting student proficiency and productivity on each of the seven competencies.

DATA TO DOCUMENT STUDENT PROFICIENCY AND PRODUCTIVITY ON SEVEN CITIZEN ACTION COMPETENCIES

Competency	Data	
	PROFICIENCY	PRODUCTIVITY
1. Communicate effectively in spoken and written language.	Objective tests in vocabulary, writing, media analysis. Evaluative testimony from teacher and others on written work and oral presentations. Exhibits such as book reports, research studies, letters, scripts, journal.	Inventory of the number and types of communication produced (letters, reports, speeches, minutes, interviews, brochures).
2. Collect and logically interpret information on problems of public concern.	Objective tests in data interpretation (e.g., graphs & tables) and location (where would you find the following information in this community or elsewhere?). Teacher evaluation of position statements -- oral and written.	Inventory of research tasks completed in political-legal process course, internship, action project, public message.
3. Describe political-legal decision-making processes.	Objective tests on local government and institutions salient in the internship and action project. Testimony from teachers and others on students' ability to plan appropriate strategies. Logs or student histories of particular decisions.	Inventory of experiences with different parts and people in the political-legal system.
4. Rationally justify personal decisions on controversial public issues and strategies for action with reference to principles of justice and constitutional democracy.	Tests on skills in identifying issues and applying principles of justice (e.g., equality) and constitutional democracy (e.g., due process or majority rule). Testimony from teachers and others on written and oral attempts to take a stand on controversial issues. Exhibits of position papers, speeches.	Inventory of number and types of positions taken orally and in writing.

Competency	Data	
	PROFICIENCY	PRODUCTIVITY
5. Work cooperatively with others	Objective tests on ability to analyze group behavior. Testimony from teacher, peers and others on specific cooperative behaviors. Self-analysis of group skills. Exhibits of group projects.	Inventory of number and types of group efforts and types of contributions made.
6. Discuss concrete personal experience of self and others in ways that contribute to resolution of personal dilemmas of citizenship and that explore more general human issues.	Tests on translating specific experiences into more general issues. Teacher testimony on students' oral and written analyses of interpersonal and personal action work. Exhibits such as student essays, diaries, tape recordings, completed public message.	Inventory of activities completed where this was the goal (e.g., counseling sessions, discussion of literature, rap sessions at the internship or action project).
7. Use selected technical skills as required for the exercise of influence on specific issues.	Objective tests and testimony from experts on particular skills such as photography, canvassing, parliamentary procedure.	Inventory of occasions in which skills were used.

Teaching for student competencies may represent the most obvious of educational goals, but schools and curricula are also held accountable on other matters. Beyond the curriculum goals of our proposed program, a citizenship education effort might also attempt to document its effectiveness in

1) Increasing positive student attitudes toward learning, membership in community, and civic participation.
2) Increasing students' cognitive development and/or self-esteem.
3) Promoting interracial cooperation among students.
4) Reducing truancy, vandalism, crime.
5) Creating an instructional climate of trust and open inquiry.
6) Providing needed services to the community at large.
7) Stimulating teachers' involvement in curriculum design.
8) Holding the line on the costs of instruction.

While teachers and administrators may need to consider these alternative criteria for establishing accountability, we limit our discussion here to evaluation of the competencies that serve as the educational focus of the proposed program.

B. Evaluation Design

Collecting data on student competencies is not equivalent to assessing the program's contribution to those competencies. How would we determine whether the citizen action program made any difference in the level of competency observed? We might seek an experimental design where a random sample of students selected from the general population was randomly divided between an experimental and control group. During the time of the experiment, the experience of the control group would match that of the experimental group on all relevant variables except that the experimental group would differ by having the citizen action curriculum. Both groups would be tested identically before and after the curriculum treatment. This design would allow us to observe changes pre to post and to attribute major differences between groups to the citizen action curriculum.

Such a design is virtually impossible to implement. Because of many

constraints (especially the obligation to allow students some choice in selection of courses), it is difficult to assign students randomly to alternative curricula. Because the school cannot and should not exercise universal control in the students' lives, it is not possible to guarantee identical experience of students in all matters except the civic action curriculum. Finally, the data we propose for assessing action competence cannot be gathered through conveniently administered paper-pencil tests or interviews.*

These difficulties, however, do not rule out useful evaluation. At initial stages in curriculum development aimed at novel goals, we are justified in assuming, without making a major investment in experimental-control group testing, that students deliberately instructed in those goals are more likely to achieve them than students not so instructed. Experimental evaluation designs are more appropriate when one wishes to compare two or more approaches for teaching a common set of skills. At the present time, however, curriculum aimed at citizen action skills is so undeveloped that there is virtually no pedagogical competition, thus no meaningful opportunity for comparison. For these reasons, educators embarking on the proposed program need not rely upon the standard model of pre to post testing with comparisons between experimental and control groups.

As an alternative design, we suggest the following three steps:

1. To document levels of student competence, gather data as suggested in the chart, and add to this other variables such as satisfaction measures from students, parents, and teachers. Note that these data will portray the extent to which students possess desired civic action skills, but they will not indicate the precise contribution which the program makes toward their acquisition. Knowing the extent of student competence is better than not knowing it, even though we may be unable to attribute program effects.

2. As the program proceeds, attempt to develop simple ways of assessing the competencies (e.g., short tests, questionnaires, interviews, behavioral simulations) so that eventually it may be possible to describe competence levels at the beginning, middle, end of the program, and later follow-up. To verify program effects, it is necessary to document change in competence over time, but evidence of improved competence is not sufficient. To rule out maturation or other explanations as the cause of observed changes, the next step would be comparative testing with a control group. This requires resources beyond those normally available to teachers.

*Much of the data we suggest (exercises, student exhibits, testimony from experts and peers) cannot be gathered in the form of pretests from an experimental group, for it becomes available only as the experimental curriculum proceeds. Neither can such data be observed in a control group, for students not required to complete internships or action projects cannot be evaluated on their skill in executing them.

3. There may be pressures on a civic action program to demonstrate that, regardless of its unique objectives, the curriculum contributes to, or at least does not diminish, student progress in other areas: literacy skills, increased self-esteem, open-mindedness, or moral development. If this sort of evaluation is desired, it would be appropriate to administer standardized tests, pre and post, to the civic action group and to control groups with whom comparison is desired. While it may be appropriate to test in this fashion on selected variables where comparison seems reasonable, student progress on these matters should not be confused with progress on the program's unique definition of civic competencies.

II. Credentialing

Having suggested how to document student competence to fulfill "accountability" requirements, we now turn to the problem of labeling and recording student achievement in a standardized format useful to educational and employment agencies. In our view, this usually results in inaccurate and unjust judgments, and tends to stifle learning itself. Nevertheless, the credentialing needs of schools and students must be faced.

A. Course Labeling

The use of transcripts rests on the assumption that different schools provide common work to all students who complete courses with identical labels (English, social studies, communications). Although there may be wide variation between schools or even within a school on what is studied in different U.S. history or American literature courses, the credentialing system requires that we use common, rather than idiosyncratic, labels to identify student learning. We recommend that the citizen action program be seen as a combination of English and social studies. According to our schedule, students will be taking the equivalent of two full-year courses that emphasize social affairs, the nature of government and methods of social inquiry (social studies), and two full-year courses that emphasize communication skills in writing, speaking, and critical reading of distinguished literature (English). Based on the Carnegie unit system in which a credit is equivalent to a full year course meeting about five hours per week, we suggest that students who complete the program earn two credits in English and two in social studies. Some schools may wish to award credit for smaller, more discrete parts in the curriculum. While we discourage this, we recognize the possibility of the following alternative labeling system:

	Alternative Plan	
Component	**Subject**	**Credits**
Political Legal Process Course	social studies	1
Communication Course	English	1

Component	Subject	Credits
Internship	social studies	1/2
Action Project	social studies	1/2
Action in Literature Course	English	1/2
Public Message	English	1/2

Schools will differ in their policies on credit equivalents, especially on the question of whether citizen action courses can be substituted for existing course requirements for graduation. History and social science teachers may object to designating the internship and action project as social studies credit. English teachers who construe their work primarily as the teaching of classical literature may object to awarding English credit for the communication course, public message, and even the action in literature course. Speech-communication teachers may claim that the communication and public message courses belong in their department. The credit issue can raise heated discussions among professionals trying to protect the integrity of their fields (and their student enrollments). Our purpose here is not to dictate local policy, but to suggest two ways of categorizing citizen action coursework that seem consistent with domains of conventional subject areas.

B. Grading and Student Records

What should be required of students to earn credit in the program, and how should student achievement be reported in public records? Since we have not offered a detailed syllabus for the curriculum, it would be presumptuous to recommend specific criteria for judging and recording student success. As mentioned above, some teachers may emphasize absolute proficiency levels, others may stress productivity, some may stress individual change or growth rather than standard requirements. For some teachers, criteria for success might be negotiated through individual contracts while others might stipulate minimal criteria for all students. Schools may choose to report student achievement through letter grades, number grades, designation of credit or no credit, or performance ratings on lists of specific competencies.

The precise criteria for judging student achievement must be left to the wisdom of local teachers, but we can discuss the format through which achievement is described to the public. Ideally, we recommend a transcript that describes (a) the productivity or type of work completed by the student, and (b) the levels of proficiency attained on the curriculum's specific competencies. At the same time, we recognize that this requires a new type of transcript which many schools would find unfeasible. Assuming that it will be necessary to report student achievement in the traditional terms of course, credit, and grade, we suggest the following:

1. As mentioned above, the course labels should be as broad as

possible, preferably one (4 credit) course in English-social studies for the whole program, alternatively one (2 credit) course in English and one (2 credit) course in social studies. The amount of credit to be awarded should be proportional to student time spent in instruction.

2. In formulating criteria through which a student may earn credit or a particular grade, the teacher's responsibility is to make policies that can be justified in terms of fairness to students, not only the convenience of external agencies. To build a fair grading policy, one must pay attention not only to the reasonableness of the criteria, but also to the *processes* by which criteria are developed, information is gathered and grades or credits are assigned to individual students. A fair set of criteria, for example, recognizes both productivity and proficiency in student performance and rewards individual growth as well as absolute levels of mastery. A fair *process* for arriving at grades guarantees that criteria are clarified at the beginning of a course, that there is opportunity for student input, and that a method of appeal is available should the student claim injustice with the final grade.

3. Since credit and grade designations will obscure students' particular accomplishments, portfolios should be considered the most accurate source of information about students' specific action competencies. Regardless of criteria for credit or grading, the portfolios should contain specific evidence of student productivity and proficiency on the seven action competencies. Material in the portfolio should become the property of the student, used as the student desires to document his or her achievement to outside agencies.

III. Program Improvement

To evaluate for accountability or credentialing is only mildly useful for the purpose of program improvement. When grades or competency indicators show students doing poorly in some areas and well in others, it may draw attention to different parts of the curriculum, but diagnostic information alone gives no clues on how the treatment should be changed in the future. In addition to documenting what the program achieves, we need information that tells the educator on a periodic basis (daily, weekly, monthly, yearly) whether specific changes should be made in teaching or program organization. This is called "formative" evaluation, and it usually occurs informally in planning sessions where staff members incorporate what they have learned from previous teaching: "We tried something very similar last year and students found it exciting." "When I asked students whether they preferred X or Y, they chose X overwhelmingly. We should try it."

To approach formative evaluation systematically it is important to collect information periodically from all constituencies involved in offering the program and served by it: students, teachers, community contacts, parents, school administrators. But such information must be

gathered judiciously. People are tired of being bombarded by questionnaires and evaluation forms, and evaluators are tired of having to digest large amounts of meaningless information. Asking people to supply information which they perceive as useless will undermine community support for the program, and teachers cannot afford to waste time trying to comprehend poorly organized data.

In deciding what information to collect, anticipate how respondents are likely to interpret the questions and how useful the information will be once it becomes available. In designing questions, it helps to fantasize about results. Suppose, for example, that midway through a course students were asked whether they felt they were getting adequate feedback from the teachers. The results: 50% adequate, 40% inadequate, 10% not sure. Since "adequate" and "inadequate" are so ambiguous (inadequate could mean too much feedback, too little feedback, uninformed feedback, unfair feedback, etc.), and since we do not know which students are reacting to which teachers, this question would yield no clues for how to improve the program. To imagine such results might lead to rephrasing the question.

It is important to avoid general questions like "how satisfied are you with ____?" Instead, questions should point to specific aspects of the program and ask whether specific changes ought to be made and why. For example, when inviting student reaction at the end of a course, one might list all the major course activities and assignments and ask the student to check whether in the future each one should be retained, omitted, or modified. In questioning a community contact midway through an internship, it might be useful to inquire whether teacher-agency communication is sufficient at present, or whether there should be more or less phone contact, personal conferences, correspondence. All questions need not be of the specific checklist variety. A general question like, "what changes, if any, would you propose in the program?" can identify salient concerns. At times, however, respondents need clues as to possible alternative changes that might be considered. A combination of open-ended and specific choice questions is desirable.

Collecting useful data requires more than careful phrasing of questions. In addition, conditions must be established which encourage respondents to be honest and cooperative in offering thoughtful reactions. To foster honesty and full disclosure, respondents must have assurance that information will not be used against them, and this can be established in part by guaranteeing anonymity on questionnaires or by private interviews with outside evaluators. Yet, all data should not be gathered anonymously. Group discussions and interviews between staff and students can be helpful in bringing out alternative points of view which respondents might never consider in the isolated context of completing a private questionnaire. Group meetings on evaluation can

also build morale and collective commitment among different constituencies with an interest in improving the program. Community contacts might enjoy the opportunity to meet as a group to offer feedback. Students might raise issues among themselves that would not surface in a teacher-student meeting. The point is to use a variety of contexts to collect data.

While many schools may not be able to pay for it, we recommend the use of outside evaluators to examine the program—not with the intent of determining which goals have been met nor of recommending specific areas for change, but to look broadly at the program from an "open-ended" perspective. Their task would be to describe in a general sense what seems to be happening, what can be said about the "quality of life," what concerns people have, and how they relate to one another. The purpose of this evaluation is to get a holistic, fresh perspective on the total program from observers who may be completely unfamiliar with its official mandate. The outside perspective allows one to stand back as an anthropologist to look at the "culture," and this awareness can lead to ideas for program change.

IV. Individual Student Learning

Teachers spend much time gathering information and giving evaluative feedback with the sole intent of contributing to the learning of particular students. Here the distinction between evaluation and teaching breaks down, for the purpose of gathering evaluative information is to guide what the teacher will teach next and the purpose of giving evaluative comments is to create a new "lesson" for the student. In this role the teacher gathers information to explain why the student performs at a given level. If, for example, Joanne has difficulty expressing her thoughts orally in a group, the teacher might seek information on several possible causes: Joanne's personal discomfort with particular individuals in the group; a history of negative experiences in groups; general difficulties in self-expression regardless of context; preference for a solitary learning style. Assuming that sources of student difficulty are often unique to the individual's personal history, the teacher undertakes what might be considered "case study" evaluation of individual learning problems.

The next step is to give the student feedback that promotes learning. Since there is usually no proven formula for how to derive educational treatment from a diagnosis, arriving at the proper evaluative response is ultimately a creative act. The treatment could be a reassuring, supportive comment, a suggestion for more practice, assigning a task on which success might come easier, altering parts of the environment (e.g., changing the members of the group), giving directions about behaviors to change in specific situations. We cannot offer guidance on the particular evaluative comments likely to promote learning in

particular situations, but two general points should be recognized.

Students should be encouraged to participate in self-evaluation with teachers, privately and also with peers. Discussions about criteria for competence, the extent to which they seem to be met by individual actions, and explanations behind different degrees of student success can be instructive. Learning to offer and receive criticism face-to-face can be threatening and difficult, but we must work toward a culture of constructive helping in which the whole point of evaluation is to generate further learning.

To offer constructive evaluative responses, we must give feedback that identifies specific virtues of completed work and that suggests specific ways in which work might be improved. In general we must move beyond the summary impression of "good" or "poor," and explain the summary judgment. Consider two examples of teacher evaluation of written work:

Summary Judgment	*Summary Judgment, plus Explanation*
Well-written paragraph. Good Work.	Well-written paragraph—you used examples to illustrate your point, and stayed with the point instead of raising new ones.
Confusing paragraph. I don't understand.	Confusing paragraph. It could be interpreted to mean any of the following: a) ... b) ... c) ... If you would clarify which, if any, of these you intend, I could follow it better.

The summary judgment leads nowhere, but the explanations suggest directions for the future that might enhance competence.

While the portfolio was suggested initially as a device to assist in documenting student achievement for the purpose of accountability, the data it calls for can also be used to improve student learning. The chart (pp. 119-120) specifies many ways in which students can gain constructive feedback from others. Their exhibits can help the teacher diagnose special learning problems. Required evaluation assignments (e.g., write an essay on your contribution to the group) can be seen as an opportunity for educational practice, not just a "test." In other words, evaluation data can serve more than one purpose and, although "accountability" and "credentialing" may attract the most attention, we should not pass up the chance to use data gathered in their behalf for the purposes of program improvement and student learning.

V. Conclusion

Evaluators of innovative programs face a special political problem. In a sense all innovators, by proposing something new and different, implicitly criticize an existing program and those dedicated to it, and this is often construed as an indictment. But existing programs are not usually expected to prove their effectiveness. Instead, challengers are expected to prove their merit while conventional programs can

proceed untested. To the extent that more rigorous demands for evaluation are placed on innovative versus conventional programs, the innovator suffers discriminatory treatment, and this may be unavoidable. Moreover, authorities often demand evaluation without sufficient resources and before a program has a chance to "get off the ground." This disrupts the innovation, as students and staff must choose (because of limited time) between concentrating on teaching and learning versus the duty to justify their existence. The conflict impedes program development. Innovators should not resist evaluation, but be alert to these dangers. They must strive for equity in requirements for evaluation of innovative versus conventional programs and for a grace period or moratorium on evaluation until experience has been gained in dealing with unforeseen problems. The perspective offered here should help educators at the local level sort out major issues, and thereby facilitate local development of instruments, observation methods and general designs.

VI. Materials and Resources

We have not reviewed all available tests and attitude inventories, but to our knowledge few instruments exist that are consistent with the proposed program goals. These measures have been recommended in the evaluation section for each component (Chapters 2-7). In addition, the following can be useful.

Center for New Schools, *Research for New School Programs: A Guide for Program Planners*, Center for New Schools, 1973. $1.75. Review of the purposes of evaluation and the use of achievement tests, questionnaires, interviews, observation. General advice on assembling and presenting results.

_____, *The Use of Ethnography in Educational Evaluation*, Center for New Schools, 1974. $1.75. Makes a good case for the use of participant observation and reviews difficulties with the method. Based on the Center's own research in schools. Includes fine bibliography.

Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning (CAEL), Educational Testing Service, offers working papers on such topics as "A Compendium of Assessment Techniques" (1975, $3.50), "A Guide for Assessing Prior Experience Through Portfolios" (1975, $2.50), "The Learning and Assessment of Interpersonal Skills: Guidelines for Students" (1975, $2.50). The papers deal with experiential learning for college credit, but many ideas can be adapted to the secondary level.

National Association of Secondary School Principals, *Competency Tests and Graduation Requirements*, the Association, 1976. $3.00. Many examples of objective proficiency tests, lists of schools that verify competencies, summary of emerging state regulations.

North Dakota Study Group on Evaluation, University of North Dakota, offers several monographs discussing alternative directions for evaluation process in schools. $2.00 each.

Planning By Objectives: A Manual for People Who Work with Student Volunteer Programs, National Student Volunteer Program, no date. Free. Many suggestions on how to phrase program objectives in ways that lend themselves to convenient objective evaluation.

Chapter 11

Winning Support in the School and Community

Innovative programs, especially during periods of retrenchment, cannot survive without the vigorous support of people in the school and community. Here we discuss strategies to build that support among various constituencies. The discussion must be prefaced by the obvious point that a program's ability to build wide support will often depend upon the talents of individual teachers and administrators to respond to interested parties in subtle, unanticipated ways. That is, the key to success will often lie in unpredictable strategies appropriate only for unique circumstances. Nevertheless, the experience of innovative programs does suggest general guidelines.

I. Major Concerns of Interested Parties

The program will have to respond to students, parents, teachers and administrators in the school, community helpers (i.e., those who supervise interns, teach skill clinics, permit student observations and contribute as "allies" in action projects), and other adults whom the program touches, such as the "targets" of student advocacy. The concerns of these parties can be summarized under three broad questions: Is the program academically respectable? Is it administered responsibly? Does it disrupt aspects of the regular school program?

A. Is It Academically Respectable?

Because the program contains unfamiliar course titles, teachers, parents and students may doubt whether "proper" content and skills are taught, and thus may question whether legitimate credit in English and social studies can be earned. Some will be particularly concerned with college preparation. Others will be committed to basic skills regardless of their relevance to college. In structuring the coursework, it is important to show as precisely as possible the kind of information, concepts, and skills that students will learn. Examples of course syllabi should be made available which indicate not only what will be taught in each course, but also the kinds of work required as evidence of student

mastery. In describing the components (Chapters 2-7) we have tried to establish the program's academic integrity. Yet our discussion does not provide course syllabi specific enough to respond to some of these concerns. Further planning to verify academic respectability must be done at the local level.

In explaining how citizen action courses do "cover" such conventional topics as fundamentals of government, English composition, analysis of literature, communication skills, etc., it is important not to promise all things to all people. The proposed program should not claim, for example, to teach the conventional content of world or U.S. history. If it is important for students to obtain that content, it must be done through other coursework. The curriculum, however, would teach skills of historical analysis as students investigate community problems, skills of data collection, organization, and interpretation, and it would teach selected historical and social science content about government, constitutional rights, and social issues. As an "alternative," the program need not teach all conventionally preferred knowledge. It can in good faith claim that in many areas it offers basic knowledge related to English and social studies, which will assist students in college, in vocations, and in general citizenship. This must be emphasized in the program's published description and in conversation.

B. Is It Operated Responsibly?

Teachers, administrators, parents and community helpers are interested in at least three general interpretations of "responsibility": Are students adequately supervised by adults? Are students working seriously and meeting commitments? Is the clinical work educationally and socially "legitimate?"

Supervision. The more that students work independently and outside of school, the more parents and administrators will be concerned with adult supervision. Usually the intent is not to impose arbitrary adult control, but to make sure that students have continuous access to responsible adults so they can be of assistance in case serious problems arise. To guarantee opportunities for helping and teaching, students should maintain contact with adults.

Several steps can facilitate adequate supervision. (1) At the beginning of the program parents should sign a form giving their consent to their child's participation. The form should make clear the general conditions of the program, including a description of the nature of adult supervision for various activities. During the program, teachers should inform parents periodically about their children's activity. (2) Teachers should devise a system of reporting and record-keeping to locate students in the school or the community during official meeting hours. (3) When sudents are involved in internships or

other experiences where noncertified teachers (community helpers) have instructional responsibility (e.g., media skill clinics), there should be a written agreement between the teacher and the community helper as to the nature of the helper's supervisory duties. Teachers should maintain periodic contact with adult helpers to keep informed about students' progress. (4) Teachers should clarify the extent of liability insurance provided by the school, and obtain notification from the administration that activities of the program are covered by the school's policy.

Student Productivity. Parents, teachers, community helpers, and other students may all be concerned that students take the work seriously, meet their commitments, and "produce." Programs that offer students autonomy are often seen as undemanding, allowing students to wander aimlessly without insisting that standards be met and tasks completed. Our descriptions should indicate that the proposed program has no intention of sending students into the community to "find themsleves" through unstructured leisure pursuits. The program has a comprehensive structure and makes demands on students as rigorous as any other course in the secondary curriculum. Contracts between teacher, students, and community agencies should specify students' working hours and criteria for task completion. Within each course, the awarding of academic credit should be contingent upon student demonstration of responsible work. Such criteria should be explained to those who might question the program's rigor.

Educational and Social Legitimacy of Clinical Work. Persons may doubt the educational value of clinical aspects of the program: "What can students really learn by observing a meeting of a pressure group, by volunteer work in a daycare center, by political canvassing or by challenging a bureaucratic rule?" If student projects involve excessive amounts of routine, trivial work (addressing envelopes, sweeping the floor), they will be more vulnerable to the criticism. It is important, therefore, that field experience be planned and supervised so that teachers and students can justify the experience for its contribution to civic competence. If necessary, this can be phrased in rather traditional terms. Students should try to document in their portfolios incidental learning which could not be anticipated prior to each clinical experience.

Even if it can be shown that clinical experience makes an *educational* contribution, persons may question the social legitimacy of selected projects. Some critics will argue that students do more harm than good trying to help others or change society. Others may have general philosophical objections to school sponsorship of student involvement in political-social controversy. We discuss these criticisms respectively under the headings of "student incompetence" and "political neutrality of school."

Student Incompetence. To run a responsible program, teachers and community helpers must avoid placing students in situations where they could do more harm than good for people they might be trying to help. Interships or projects requiring special skills (e.g., caring for disabled people or using complicated mechanical equipment) must provide required technical training. Staff must show students how to keep in touch with potential beneficiaries of an action project to make sure that proposed tactics are actually seen as beneficial by intended recipients. There can be no foolproof guarantees that students are the most competent persons to provide help, or that their clinical work will always benefit intended parties. Nevertheless, supervisory arrangements should make all reasonable efforts to select fieldwork and prepare students such that their participation does make a social contribution rather than creating additional hardships. This general guideline must be qualified by an awareness that a "social contribution" for one person may be seen as a "social injustice" by another. The mandate to prevent personal hardship arising out of incompetence, however, is not equivalent to an obligation to avoid social controversy.

Political Neutrality of the School. Controversial action projects might lead to charges that student behavior is unethical, illegal, disruptive, in bad taste, too partisan, or foolish. To respond to such concerns, teachers, administrators and students need a philosophy for school-sponsored student involvement in political controversy and specific mechanisms to deal with conflict arising over such sponsorship. First we summarize a "philosophy" and then suggest a few mechanisms for implementing it.

As instruments of the state, public schools have an obligation to promote representative democracy, and this requires that students be taught skills in active civic participation. In this sense the school cannot be "politically neutral," but must take a stand on the side of representative democracy as the fairest or most just political relationship between a citizen and a state. According to this relationship, the fundamental purpose of the state is to preserve certain unalienable rights to which all persons are equally entitled, and specific governments are formed to implement this mission, deriving their powers from the consent of the governed. The fundamental rights of "life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness" have been interpreted in various ways, but most would agree that they include rights to participate actively in determination of public policies, along with rights to due process of law, and certain civil liberties such as freedom of religion and the right to nondiscriminatory treatment. For students to learn to function in this kind of a relationship with the state, they need laboratory training in trying to exert influence in public affairs—the activity lying at the heart of the consent process. For this reason, schools must sponsor student involvement in citizen action.

School sponsorship of civic action for the purpose of education must not, however, violate the very principles of representative democracy that it seeks to promote. To uphold the equal rights of all to participate in the consent process, the school cannot restrict student projects to the preferences of a few partisan interests; the civil action laboratory must allow a diverse plurality of interests to be pursued. Some students may work for increases in welfare payments, others for decreases. Some may lobby for more parks, others for more parking lots. Opposing political candidates might each have students working on their campaigns. Whether one holds minority or majority points of view, whether one belongs to a group with negligible or awesome power, all should have a chance to enhance their ability to participate. The school must make every attempt to remain "neutral" (in the partisan sense of the word) while helping students to become politically active.

The obligation to support a plurality of action efforts is not, however, unconditional. Some proposed actions could conceivably violate the principles of justice that the school is obligated to defend. For this reason the school is justified in requiring students to demonstrate that proposed actions do not violate the equal rights of persons upon which democracy itself is ethically justified, and that they do not deliberately violate local, state or federal laws.*

If teachers and/or administrators believe that students' proposed actions violate underlying ethical principles or specific laws, this should be discussed openly with the students. Each side should examine, clarify, attempt to justify, and possibly modify its views on the social legitimacy of the proposed action. If, after open discussion of the problem, school authorities still believe that a project violates underlying principles or unjustifiably will violate specific laws, then they must withdraw official school sponsorship.

Unfortunately, some persons may wish to censor a proposed project for reasons without ethical, legal, or educational merit. Some may feel that those criteria are met, but that because of misguided perceptions of key people in the community, a project will be "too hot to handle." It will result in unfavorable publicity for the school, bring hostile reaction from taxpayers, and eventually diminish support for the school program. These concerns should also be shared openly with student proponents of the controversial project. Potential activists must face

*Conceivably, in some situations violation of laws may be required in order to uphold principles of justice. If a school board passed a regulation that denied library privileges to a racial minority, and all legal attempts to revise the regulation failed, teachers and administrators might have to violate some regulations (e.g., deliberately refusing to enforce the rule, or filing false reports on library use) in order to consistently support the rights of students. Without discussing here the ethics of civil disobedience or revolution, the example is given only to illustrate that the commitment to abide by underlying principles that law is intended to serve takes precedence over commitment to obeying specific laws themselves.

the reality that some actions, however ethically, legally, and educationally justified, may threaten special interests who will then try to suppress the students' rights to participate. Students should have a chance to discuss possible implications for future support of their own program. After they have been informed of perceived risks, they should then decide whether to modify their project, to abandon it, or to proceed as planned, ready to accept the consequences. Challenges to the social legitimacy of clinical work based not on ethical, legal or educational reservations, but more on political criteria of appeasing certain groups because of the power they could exert against particular school regimes, should be communicated, and students should be allowed to change their plans voluntarily. Political objections alone, however, do not justify coercive censorship by school authorities.

Persons connected with the program should be familiar with and able to defend the philosophy just offered or some modification thereof, and a mechanism should be established to handle challenges to controversial clinical work. We suggest that students, in proposing each action project, prepare a written "brief," explaining its consistency with principles of representative democracy, and that this justification be discussed with teacher and peers during the formative stages (position papers described in Chapter 5). Second, an "action project advisory committee" should be constituted, comprised of students, parents, school administrators, other teachers in the school. The committee would review questionable or risky proposals and discuss them with student proponents. If agreement between the committee and student advocates cannot be reached, the committee might make recommendations to the school authorities. The committee should be small (about seven members), and its exact composition and function should be determined locally. The point, however, is to develop a forum of interested parties to give students and authorities feedback on the social legitimacy of questionable projects. Committee members should be sympathetic to the civic education program and interested principally in helping students sell their controversial projects to the community at large. In this sense the committee would serve as a political buffer for students and school authorities.

C. Does It Disrupt the Regular School Program?

Different groups may be concerned with effects of the citizenship program on the regular school curriculum, as it may influence enrollments in other courses, teacher workload, scheduling patterns, and general student morale. A few guidelines should help to avoid unnecessary disruption of the normal school program:

1. Schedule the program such that students will have time to take at least one other course (e.g., science, math, language, shop) and to participate in some extracurricular activity (athletic team, music, or

club). Although accommodation must be made to maintain student participation in the normal program, the citizenship program presented here is conceived as an alternative for a year—something that students would choose *instead* of, not in addition to, all the "normal" activities of school. In this sense students are expected to make a choice, in some cases equivalent to a decision to give up some opportunities of the regular program. At the same time, the program must be scheduled to allow minimum involvement in other school activities. Students will want to partake not only of other curricular offerings, but also of the social opportunity to be with friends outside the civic education group.

The program must be scheduled such that students can meet requirements for graduation. In some schools this might require restricting the program to the 12th grade so that all other requirements can first be met. In some schools, it might necessitate allowing students to take U.S. history at the 10th or 12th grades instead of only at the 11th. Students must be counseled at the *beginning* of their high school program as to how they might arrange their schedule to meet graduation requirements and still take this program in their 11th or 12th year.

2. The effect of the program on enrollment in other courses should be estimated and discussed with the entire teaching staff, many of whom will be concerned that students may desert regular courses for the new civic education program. If significant shifts in enrollment are foreseen, it may be necessary to change staff assignments (e.g., bring new staff into the citizenship program, and alter assignments of the regular staff). Needless to say, teachers are legitimately sensitive to this topic. Since it may have implications for negotiated teacher contracts, union representatives should be consulted. To gain support from fellow staff members, they must be informed and consulted at initial stages in planning.

Teachers not included in the program's core staff may feel rejected or excluded, for a new proposal often carries a connotation to "outsiders" that "what you're doing is not adequately appreciated." Some of these teachers may have much to offer—specific skills in media production, special knowledge on social issues (e.g., science teachers on environmental problems), excellent contacts with community resources (e.g., the journalism teacher with local media). Every attempt should be made to seek help from teachers outside the core staff. To the extent that their competence is valued and their contributions invited, they will feel less isolated and less likely to see the program as disruptive.

3. Students in the regular program may be envious of the apparently special privileges bestowed on the civic education students (freedom to leave school and to work on novel projects), and students in the

action program may come to view themselves as a privileged elite. It must be emphasized that the "special privileges" of civic education students are contingent upon their performing additional responsibilities and that the program is open to any student who volunteers. The civic education students must be careful not to physically disrupt normal instruction in the school (noise and motion in the halls). If the class space of the civic education program is relatively isolated from main classroom areas, this will facilitate entering and leaving school with minimum distraction. Students at large might sit on an advisory committee to keep the program informed of possible gripes from the rest of the student body.

II. Techniques for Generating Broad-Based Support

We have anticipated concerns of various parties and suggested ways in which the program could respond. Since it is impossible to foresee all conceivable issues and strategies for coping, the best prescription for pulling a program through troubled times is to develop a broad-based constituency of support; that is, a group of people who value the program enough to work to keep it alive. The generation of support will rise or fall, depending largely on the talents of the people trying to launch and operate the program. Their talent, however, will be best used if focused on a few general strategies.

A. Advisory Committees

Advisory committees can be helpful at different stages of program development. At the earliest possible point in planning, it would be useful to constitute a small committee of teachers, administrators, community helpers, parents, students who seem committed to the program's goals and who would assist in developing it according to local contingencies. To the extent that a group of people representing diverse roles, as opposed to a single teacher or administrator, becomes committed to program implementation, the better its chances for success. The earlier the group becomes involved, the greater will be its commitment and sense of responsibility. An advisory committee at the planning stages will help to anticipate difficult issues and should provide access to resources in the school and community. To effectively coordinate such a planning committee, the local program planner should have skills in group work.

As indicated above, an advisory committee could be helpful at the operational stage by studying controversies on the social legitimacy of student clinical work or other problems for which the teacher might seek advice; for example, fund-raising, finding new internship placements, or program evaluation. A well-functioning advisory committee keeps lines of communication open among various departments within the school and between the school and the community at large. If a program receives continuous feedback from

different constituencies, it can chart its direction with better awareness of possible effects on its own future. A committee can also serve as a political and public relations buffer, allowing the core teachers to teach, without having to spend inordinate amounts of time defending the program to others.

B. Brochure

An official program description should be printed and made available to teachers, parents, students, community agencies. The brochure can be used to recruit and orient participants, especially students and community helpers. It should be distributed to hosts who accept student visitations, to curious observers who ask "what are the kids doing out of school?," to prospective donors of equipment, space, money. If possible, the brochure should be designed and approved by a representative advisory committee. In addition to general program description it should include the name, address and phone number of the program coordinator or other staff members. A school system's public relations department may help in preparing the brochure.

C. Celebration and Recognition

Special events of celebration and recognition can help to develop a sense of community. Without overemphasizing competition among students, the school might establish a citizenship award for student members judged to have accomplished the most significant action project. The program might have its own awards—serious and humorous—honoring its members at an annual potluck supper or recognition night. Adult community helpers who serve internships and skill clinics should also be recognized; for example, at a special dinner, with music and skits. People from different corners of the program can come together for picnics, softball and volleyball. Events like these help people share some of the significant personal meanings that the program offers. Collective celebration and recognition, by uplifting spirit and morale, also contribute to a foundation of political support.

D. Continuing Publicity and Public Relations

Without dwelling on image-building, the program should keep the community accurately informed of its accomplishments. Students' public messages will provide one type of exposure. In addition, special news articles might be written on services rendered in the internships, or on findings in the political-legal process course. Students and staff might participate in talk shows. Events of celebration and recognition can also be publicized. Key people (e.g., school board members) should be invited to the program's public events and also to visit with students and teachers in their daily work.

E. Parent Contact

Apart from student and staff support, support from parents is most critical. Enthusiastic parents can keep a program alive, and hostile ones can kill it. To win parental support, the points made in section I above must be carefully explained through individual conferences and group meetings, as well as through the brochure—at orientation time, during program evaluation and on other occasions for parent contact. Whenever feasible, parents should be consulted in setting educational goals with students and in accumulating evaluative data. They should be invited to participate by contributing their expertise (e.g., in skill clinics, advice on action strategies, personal contacts with possible intern sponsors) and their time to help with program work (e.g., potluck suppers, field trip transportation). The flexible schedule of the program should allow some time during the day for staff to visit parents at their homes or workplaces. We believe that the more direct contact parents have with the program, the more they will support it. If staff and students want that support, they must pursue such approaches to increase parent contact.

Chapter 12

Conclusion: Starting Out

Having discussed many aspects of the proposed program, we reiterate our hope that the model will be seen not as a finished mold into which schools must fit, but as a genesis that stimulates schools to conceptualize their own versions. In our judgment the program holds together as a curriculum of integrated, interdependent parts which, while requiring further development, should be left intact. At the same time, educators can select whatever parts may be useful to strengthen their own (possibly different) approaches to civic education. If the proposed model is to be used as a guiding framework, the first step is to gain support for a development project in which local staff plan a structure appropriate for their school, find community supervisors and other special instructors, assemble and organize instructional materials. In addition to establishing specifics of the program, the development effort needs to generate interest among students and parents and support from school personnel and the community at large.

I. Proposing a Development Project

Developing the proposed model would seem to require a minimum of two teachers working half-time for a semester and a summer, along with secretarial services and a budget for purchase and reproduction of materials. To secure funds a proposal must be written and submitted to local school authorities and/or external funding agencies. This is itself an "action project," where success depends upon skills of the grant seekers, not only in writing a well-organized proposal, but also in interpersonal communication, in responding appropriately to political considerations, and finally having some luck. A proposal should include the following:

Rationale and Objectives. The program goals should be stated concisely and in language responsive to concerns in the local community. The proposal's argument for the validity of its goals should refer not only to local concerns, but to general movements and literature dealing, for example, with the needs of adolescents, the role of volunteerism in the society, and conceptions of citizenship. Much

material in this book (especially Chapter 1) could be incorporated into a local school's rationale.

Program Outline. Since the purpose of a development period is to build a program, many program details cannot be presented in the proposal. Yet, the development team should not start with a totally open design. To convince authorities of the need for an investment in development, one needs a rough outline of the expected "product." The proposal should contain an illustrative sketch of the proposed program, and the sketch should anticipate salient concerns of teachers, administrators, and parents; for example, scheduling, teacher workload, awarding of credit, supervision of nonschool experience. The outline we offer can be used as an illustration.

Evaluation. Most funding agencies want to determine whether their funds are used as intended, and so the proposal should provide a scheme to assess the success of the development grant as well as the curriculum itself.

Dissemination. Funding agencies usually wish to support projects with far-reaching impact, and it is usually advisable to show how benefits of the program can be shared by several schools. A final dissemination plan could be devised during the development period, but general approaches to dissemination should be clarified in the development proposal; for example, workshops for teachers from other schools.

Budget. Innovative public school programs are usually required to show that in the long run they will cost no more than conventional programs. The development budget should make clear, therefore, that the program will be planned in such a way that following initial development expenditures, the operational phase will not place exceptional financial burdens upon the school.

Support. Written, signed endorsements of the proposal from individuals (e.g., teachers, parents, students, administrators) and organizations (e.g., the English and social studies departments, the local volunteer service bureau) are crucial in verifying local support.

We believe such proposals stand the best chance of success when initiated jointly by a social studies and an English or communication teacher, rather than unilaterally by an administrator. Ideally, two such teachers within a school would find themselves committed to the general message of this book. They would then enlist the assistance of a sympathetic administrator and work together on the development proposal. Schools will vary in the pattern of authorities from which approval is required at various stages.

II. Alternatives in Program Design

In forming the development proposal and in the development phase

itself, many questions may be raised with the proposed model. Two of the most frequently disputed areas are scheduling and credit.

A. Schedule

A school may wish to avoid the concentrated one-year program on the grounds that four and a half hours a day leaves insufficient time for students to participate in other school activities. One alternative would be to extend the curriculum over two years at the 11th and 12th grades, with students taking half the curriculum each year, perhaps according to the following schedule:

Grade	Semester 1	Semester 2	Credits
11	Communication Course	Communication Course	1 English
	Political-Legal Process Course	Political-Legal Process Course	1 social studies
12	Internship	Action Project	1 social studies
	Action in Literature	Public Message	1 English

During each year this plan opens up alternatives outside the action curriculum, for at any given time students are committed to only two course equivalents. On the other hand, this will erode the sense of community among students and will reduce flexibility in scheduling required for the internship and action project. Field experiences cannot be forced into the conventional one hour per day allotted for courses, so even this two-year plan requires scheduling flexibility for twelfth graders. If the school's schedule can accommodate to flexible time demands of the clinical work, however, this plan looks promising. There are other ways of scheduling the program, but we list only this—in our view the most reasonable second choice to the plan proposed in Chapter 1.

B. Credit

Departments may balk at awarding academic credit for some aspects of the program, or at the particular kind of credit we suggest. Some teachers contend, for example, that the action in literature course does not warrant credit in English, and others that the internship or action project are not equivalent to a social studies course. Some propose that aspects of the communication course and the public message could meet graduation requirements in speech or communication.

It has been argued that volunteer programs should not conform completely to conventional credit offerings, that they lose intrinsic value when students take them for the purpose of fulfilling requirements. Following this line of thought, some would advocate offering only half of the program (i.e., the structured in-class courses) for credit. From our point of view citizenship education is as legitimate as any other function of schooling and, to confirm its equal status, official credit must be awarded in proportion to the time students spend, whether in the field or in the classroom. While this does have

the effect of offering extrinsic rather than only intrinsic incentives, it is absolutely necessary if civic education is to compete with other school offerings.

If our credit proposals seem unfeasible for a particular school, we encourage invention of different ones or modifying the components to conform more clearly to local conceptions of credit. One alternative would be to offer variable credit for the internships and action projects, depending upon the areas of concentration: service in a hospital or mental health center might earn credit in health; environmental action projects could earn science credit. If part of the program is dropped on the grounds that no form of credit seems appropriate, or if some parts are offered, but not for credit, both will have the undesirable effect of "shrinkage" discussed below.

C. Traps

In adapting the model to a local school, we need to be alert to common tendencies that undermine program effectiveness. There are seductive traps which provide apparent "solutions" in the planning and development process, but which eventually take heavy tolls in the operational phase of the program.

1. Goal Diffusion. In the attempt to "please everybody," there is a temptation to claim that the curriculum will aim toward a multitude of goals. This has the advantage of winning support from many segments, for many constituencies can then see their interests represented. To a certain extent the proposed model already appeals to many interests (skills in communications, social studies instruction on government and law-related topics, working with media, volunteerism in the community, moral education and taking responsibility for one's actions), and these interests can be articulated into educational goals justified in their own right. That is, a case can be made for reading and writing, media work, volunteerism, moral education, without mentioning the citizen's relationship to the state or the nature of civic education. In representing a diversity of interests, however, a curriculum also risks a fragmented, supermarket style of education, with no coherence or common purpose.

We have articulated a theme or common goal that can organize and focus these otherwise diverse purposes. If the central goal (ability to exert influence in public affairs) is neglected, disparate interests will tend to dominate, each clamoring for attention to a rendition of its own parochial objective. To the extent that the program becomes nothing but an administrative mechanism to mediate and negotiate among competing, diffuse curriculum interests, it is no program at all. Developers must be continually alert to this danger and work against it by setting clear priorities as to the ultimate, overriding purpose versus subordinate goals which may have independent legitimacy, but which

can be pursued in ways that detract from the ultimate mission. In short, be careful not to promise all things to all people. There are a variety of innovative educational efforts compatible with this program, but they should be included only to the extent that they aim toward the challenge of helping students make an impact in public affairs.

2. The "Organic" Approach. During the planning stage of programs that emphasize responsiveness to student concerns, there is a tendency for staff to avoid making decisions, on the grounds that "we'll have to see how students react, or how the program develops." In this "organic" approach it is assumed that program structure and content cannot be determined before participants arrive; they must be allowed to grow and develop "naturally" in response to students' stated needs and their struggles during the program. According to this view, one must avoid overplanning that takes initiative and responsibility away from future participants. A program in citizenship that tries to help students assert themselves in public affairs could not thrive in a climate of predestination where all educational decisions had been made previously by a development team.

On the other hand, the extreme of no planning has proven disastrous and is unacceptable in public schools with public accountability. The challenge is to devise in advance a structure that will be responsive to concerns of future participants and to give students an honest picture of the kinds of decisions which will and will not be open to modification in a given time period. During the development phase, staff should work at anticipating future issues, especially with regard to questions of student autonomy (rules for attendance, supervision, evaluation and grading, discipline, required vs. optional instructional assignments). Decisions on some of these matters may be deferred for later resolution through the governance structure. However, to make sure that staff are willing to live with possible consequences of that decision-making structure, they should try to clarify, before the program begins, their own views on various contingencies. Within the courses, staff may choose to leave students with many options, but during the development process those options should be identified and necessary resources assembled. Contacts in the community for internships and possibilities for action projects can be lined up in advance, and this can be handled in a way that expands rather than limits student options.

One of the most seductive planning traps is to conclude, "this can be solved only later when we know more about the situation." Even if staff feel certain that a decision should be postponed, they can benefit by role-playing discussions where they assume that it has to be decided now, based on current information. Simulations of this sort will often lead staff to face issues that are more productively considered during the planning stage, rather than waiting for the operational stage with its scarce opportunities for systematic reflection on program direction.

Such discussions will help to clarify staff viewpoints and may also lead to a realization that a decision in question should not be deferred. As a general principle during the development stage, the planning group should be somewhat suspect of attempts to postpone decisions.

3. Shrinkage. Because of competing demands on student and staff time, there will be a tendency to propose reductions in school time and/or credit allocated to the program. People will agree that civic education is important, but they will not want it to deprive students of other opportunities, and will not, therefore, be eager to support programs where citizenship appears to hold a monopoly on student time. Some will suggest that citizen action skills can be taught adequately in a single course occupying the conventional slot of fifty minutes per day. Existing programs in community involvement, volunteerism and other special courses may be cited as evidence that this time is sufficient. While several exciting programs do operate with a smaller slice of the school schedule, these are usually supplementary enrichment offerings, tacked-on to the existing curriculum, not woven into an integrated set of courses. They make distinctive contributions to the high school curriculum, but they cannot accomplish the goal set out here.

To seriously pursue the goal of enhancing student ability to exert influence in public affairs requires a significant amount of instructional time and diverse experiences structured into a coherent scheme. Meaningful civic education should be perceived as a multicourse sequence, more analogous perhaps to a three or four year foreign language curriculum, and in our estimation it should occupy roughly 25% of the total secondary curriculum.

As teachers consider the question of whether and how much to cut back from the proposed model, they should be aware that some precedents do exist in which the major portion of a student's schedule is devoted to civic involvement or some other nontraditional conception of curriculum. Examples include the Senior Semester Program (see Chapter 4 bibliography), the Walkabout Program (see Chapter 4 bibliography), and the Institute for Political-Legal Education Program (see Chapter 2 bibliography).

While some may view the concentrated time commitment as a limit on student opportunity, it should really be seen as an expansion of student options to areas not normally available in a conventional program. Further, the schedule we propose does not completely isolate students from the regular school program; it provides opportunity to take one additional course and extracurricular activities. There will be situations where students, during the year of the civic action program, must choose between the civic curriculum and other school offerings—they cannot pursue all valuable educational experiences at once. However, this does not justify shrinking the program, for as a voluntary

curriculum, no student is forced to take it. Those who wish to rank it higher in priority, for a given year, than other school offerings, can do so, and can pursue at other times experiences that seem to have been temporarily sacrificed.

In allocating time and credit we must be sensitive to setting precedents Once a program identifies a minimal level of resources and operates at that level for a time, it becomes very difficult to argue for more time, credit or resources in the future. In functioning at a given level, the program sets a precedent hard to break. If the program seems successful, then the resources must have been adequate. If the program seems unsuccessful, then the failure can be blamed on the nature of the program rather than the level of resource allocation. From this point of view it is always better to err in the direction of overestimating rather than underestimating the amount of time, credit, staffing, etc., required to begin a program.

We have no illusions about difficulties in implementing a comprehensive curriculum in citizen action. This book cannot overcome the many obstacles confronting educators committed to its proposal. Competition among curriculum areas for a piece of the student's head, staff insecurity about teaching in new areas, tradition-bound conceptions of education and credit, students' apathy and cynicism with social affairs will be powerful deterrents in almost any school. As indicated in the preface, however, we believe some service can be performed by providing rationale, a program outline, an annotated set of resources, and commentary on development that charts an alternative course and that incorporates many of the more exciting developments in secondary curriculum.

Educators who intend to apply this model or who already work in similar programs are encouraged to contact the Citizen Participation Curriculum Project (Fred M. Newmann, Director, University of Wisconsin, 225 N. Mills Street, Madison, WI 53706). It would be useful to identify a constituency of educators who might help one another in the quest to build education for an active citizenry.

Appendix

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